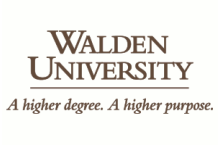

2020

Exploring Teacher Confidence Using Behavioral Interventions in the Classroom

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Etoile Swift

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

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Walden University
2020

Abstract

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by

Etoile Swift

MS, Walden University, 2009

BS, Louisiana Tech University, 1992

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

CES Counseling and Social Change

Walden University

August 23,2020

Abstract

The original purpose of this study was to conduct a quantitative quasi-experimental study to compare a treatment group of teachers with training in the cognitive behavioral ABC model to a control group and examine differences in the average count of referrals to school counselors for students who exhibited disruptive behaviors. However, due to lack of participation, this study examined teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor. This study included 99 teachers from pre-K through 12th grade from one parish in the state of Louisiana. Data were collected using the Survey of Behavior Management Practices. A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the prediction of age of teacher, number of years teaching, teacher perception of support from parents, and teacher perception ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent to the number of referrals to the school counselor. The results of the analysis revealed that the age of teacher and number of years teaching were not statistically significant predictors. However, the association between teachers' perception of support from parents and how easy it was to contact parents revealed a statistically significant relationship. These findings support the importance of understanding how behavior management strategies can enhance teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students. The implications for positive social change are that parental contact and support in the learning process may help positively impact the classroom environment and student learning outcomes and reduce school counselors' workloads.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this study to my chair and committee. I am appreciative of the support, guidance, and encouragement my committee provided to me so that I could continue and remain positive and not become discouraged. However, during the process of completing my dissertation, Dr. Brande Flamez resigned from the university and Dr. Melinda Haley blessed me by accepting my request to become my chair. I am also appreciative of my methodologist Dr. Gary Szirony, who opted to accept my request as my methodologist in the absence of my original chosen methodologist. Dr. Szirony accepted another position within the university and completed his review of my methods section; however, Dr. Walter Frazier then stepped up to serve as my methodologist. Dr. Walter Frazier now serves as my chair and Dr. SaDohl Jones as my committee member. Finally, yet importantly, I am grateful to Dr. Laura Haddock, who served as my university research reviewer and now to Dr. Greg Hickman who currently serves as my university research reviewer due to Dr. Haddock accepting another position within the university.

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I am appreciative of the teachers for their willingness to participate in my study. I would also like to thank Dr. Mary Nell Robinson, who continues to provide positive support throughout this process and Dr. Donnie Underwood for motivating me to pursue higher education and who was willing to provide the training to the teachers in my first proposed study. Finally, I would like to extend a special thanks to my committee members for their support and guidance.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

In the state of Louisiana, public schools expel students at five times the national rate and issue out-of-school suspensions due to students exhibiting disruptive behaviors in the classroom at twice the rate as the rest of the United States (Carr, 2011; Sentell, 2015). In an elementary classroom setting, some teachers may find it difficult to manage disruptive student behaviors while trying to teach the curriculum at the same time (Adkağ & Haser, 2016; Erdogan et al., 2010). Disruptive students can display boredom, a lack of motivation, and a disinterest in learning the subject matter (Erdogan et al., 2010). However, school professionals need to understand that medical conditions, psychological disorders, and stressful life events can cause children to become disruptive (O'Connor, Dearing, & Collins, 2011).

Managing behaviors in the classroom is a chief concern of educators (Reinke, Herman, Stormount, Newcomer, & David, 2013; Westling, 2010). However, schools often respond to disruptive students with exclusionary and punitive approaches that have limited value (Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010; Talamo, 2017). Past researchers have-indicated a need for in-service training for teachers to learn how to handle student disruptions in the classroom (Dunlap, Iovannone, Wilson, Kincaid, and Strain, 2010). Teachers often are not trained or do not have an adequate amount of training in modifying the classroom environment to encourage academic engagement and discourage disruptive behavior (Guardino & Fullerton, 2010). Adams, Beshoff, and Harrington (2007) suggested that teachers should examine their motives for referring students to the school counselor.

School counselors are an important part of the school community with a primary function to support students for success. School counselors do this by offering students help with mental health, social, and academic needs and by assisting students and teachers with student behavioral issues in the classroom (Bickmore & Curry, 2013). School counselors address approximately 70% of students' mental health care needs rather than students receiving aid from community agencies (Gnilka, Karpinski, & Smith, 2015). Among these mentioned duties, school counselors also provide classroom presentations, parent and teacher education, and work with outside community partners for student development, vocation, and betterment (Bickmore & Curry, 2013; Gündüz, 2012). Also, many school counselors perform other tasks such as paperwork, lunchroom duty, and coordinating tests and other nonstudent care related activities (Bickmore & Curry, 2013; Gnilka et al., 2015).

School counselors often have enormous caseloads with high student-to-counselor ratios (Gnilka et al., 2015). Thus, school counselors are often overworked, overwhelmed, and overburdened (Gnilka et al., 2015; Gündüz, 2012). This can cause school counselors to have feelings of stress, burnout, low self-efficacy, disillusionment, and exhaustion regarding their profession (Bickmore & Curry, 2013; Gnilka et al., 2015). Due to these various duties and teachers asking school counselors to help manage students with behavioral issues, school counselors often cannot engage in the activities they are trained for: student welfare, vocation, and mental health (Bickmore & Curry, 2013). Therefore, many school counselors ultimately leave their positions due to feeling disenchanted with their workload and the negative school environment (Bickmore & Curry, 2013).

Teachers often refer students to school counselors for student behavioral issues (Bryan, Day-Vines, Griffin, & Moore-Thomas, 2012). These referrals can cost students educational time, create a negative climate within the school, and add to school counselors' caseloads and stress (Bryan et al., 2012). Further, researchers have demonstrated that teacher expectations and teacher perceptions of students both impact student success and can affect whether a teacher makes a disciplinary referral to a school counselor (Bryan et al., 2012). Teacher perceptions and actions toward students can also reinforce disruptive student behavior, creating a negative pattern that can adversely affect the student, teacher, and school counselor (Bryan et al., 2012; Reinke et al., 2013). Therefore, providing teachers with a tool they can use in the classroom to address student behaviors in a positive manner may help both teachers and students create a positive learning environment that helps lead to student success, while potentially reducing the workload, stress, and feelings of burnout for school counselors (Bryan et al., 2012).

In Chapter 1, I provide the background information and previous research related to the topic of two proposed studies. My initial proposal did not succeed due to lack of participation and my inability to achieve my needed sample size. Therefore, I processed a change of procedure with my university's institutional review board (IRB). Under this second study, I was successful in achieving my sample size.

In Chapter 1, I provide a discussion of the gaps in the literature, describe the research problem, and address how the problem is relevant to the counseling profession. I also discuss the purpose and nature of the study, provide my research questions, and discuss the theoretical foundation used to focus my study. Finally, I address key

definitions, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations, all of which provided context to the problem studied.

Background of the Problem

In accordance with Louisiana Legislative State Children's Code 731A: RS 17:416 (2014), the issue of behavioral disruptions by students in the classroom has received attention from state education officials, school boards, and parents. The Legislative State Children's Code (2014) outlines procedures for school personnel to address student discipline, suspensions, and expulsions. Researchers have found that current school practices that include exclusionary and punitive approaches for disruptive students in the school have only partial value (Osher et al., 2011; Talamo, 2017). Cholewa, Smith-Adcock, and Amatea (2010) noted a need to find a potent intervention to enhance effectiveness and efficiency in working with children who cause disruptions in class settings. The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) national model, which is a framework for comprehensive data driven school counseling programs, is an effective tool for counselors to provide in-service training to schoolteachers and other personnel (ASCA, 2012). However, when teachers have exhausted their classroom management strategies without successfully eliminating the obstacles to learning that student problem behaviors pose, teachers once again refer the student to the school counselor (Bryan et al., 2012).

While many of the current studies on this topic have focused on K–12 students exhibiting disruptive behaviors (Axelrad, Butler, Chapman, & Dempsey, 2013; Bierman et al., 2013; Herschell, Higa, Koko, Lindheim, & Trentacosta, 2013), Deering (2011)

provided insight into helping teachers manage incidents of disruptive and uncivil behavior in colleges and universities. Deering found a great need for teachers to examine their own behaviors as well as how their behaviors contributed to the classroom environment. Deering stressed the importance of educators seeking help and obtaining feedback to provide interventions to decrease disruptive and uncivil behavior in the classroom setting. Deering emphasized the importance of early interventions before patterns of disruptive behavior become a student's habit.

I only found a handful of studies that explored teachers' impact on student behaviors in the classroom. This research has provided ambivalent results with some indicating that teachers bear some responsibility for disruptive student behaviors, such as when teachers think, emote, and behave in unhelpful ways in the classroom (Barbetta, Norona, & Bicard, 2012; Bryan et al., 2012; Diedrich, 2010; Reinke et al., 2013; Sabornie, 2010). Warren and Baker (2013) researched the potential impact of rational emotive behavior theory (REBT) training on both teacher efficacy and student achievement outcomes. The results from Warren and Baker's research suggested that REBT is a viable and comprehensive teacher intervention that has the potential to promote emotional health and self-realization for the students at both societal and individual levels.

Warren and Baker's (2013) study included the use of the rational emotive-social behavior consultation model, which allowed teachers to act as agents of change by changing the way they structure their classrooms. Warren and Baker incorporated the rational emotive-social behavior consultation model along with providing face-to-face

online consultation to teachers. The researchers' goal was to influence the rational and efficacy beliefs of teachers, which in turn influenced students systemically. Results from the study suggested that face-to-face online consultation was useful in promoting positive mental health among teachers that indirectly fostered student success (Warren & Baker, 2013).

When teachers use student referrals to the school counselor as a means of managing disruptive students, it can put an enormous strain on school counselors who routinely navigate large caseloads (Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Bryan et al., 2012; Culbreth, Scarborough, Banks-Johnson, & Solomon, 2005; Gündüz, 2012; Woods & Thurston, 2014). It is not unusual for school counselor caseloads to be 250–450 or more, depending on the educational setting (ASCA, 2017; Woods & Thurston, 2014). In Louisiana, the ratio is 442 students per every school counselor (ASCA, 2013). These large caseloads, along with noncounseling duties, such as academic scheduling, lunch duty, and other academic and administrative tasks, reduce the amount of time that school counselors can engage in assisting students with developmental, social, and mental health needs (Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Culbreth et al., 2005). Training teachers to better manage disruptive student behaviors in the classroom could be effective in reducing school counselors' caseloads, thus freeing up their time to better assist students with the aforementioned needs (Banks, 2011; Banks & Ziounts, 2009; Martens & Andreen, 2013).

Scholarly articles related to school suspensions (Iselin, 2010; Lamont, 2013; Losen, 2011), teacher referrals (Kindelan, 2011; Lewis, 2010; Pane & Rocco 2012), and counselor referrals (Amatea, Cholewa, & Smith-Adcock, 2010; Bachner & Orwig, 2008;

Fitzgerald, 2009) are abundant. However, after an exhaustive literature review, I did not find any studies that explored using REBT ABC (which stands for *activating event, beliefs,* and *consequences*) model as training for teachers to use as an intervention in reducing the number of disruptive student behaviors in the classroom. The results from such a study could provide additional training options and additional classroom management strategies for teachers to address disruptive student behaviors. This in turn, could result in additional instructional time for students, thus enhancing student learning, and could create a potential for the reduction in referrals by teachers to school counselors, which would reduce counselors' caseloads and potential stress (Bickmore & Curry, 2013; Gnilka et al., 2015).

Problem Statement

Due to its strict school discipline laws compared to other states, Louisiana public schools have the highest rate of expulsion at five times the national average, and Louisiana public schools issue out-of-school suspensions due to disruptive behaviors in the classroom at twice the rate of the rest of the country (Carr, 2011; Sentell, 2015; Talamo, 2017). During the 2013–2014 school year in Louisiana, over 73,000 children received in-school suspensions and 62,000 received out-of-school suspensions (Drelilinger, 2015; Sentell, 2015; Talamo, 2017). This included 15,000 students from kindergarten through fifth grade, with 6,880 from kindergarten through third grade (Drelilinger, 2015; Sentell, 2015). Louisiana also has the fifth highest student dropout rate in the United States (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2009). Louisiana recognizes it

has what it has termed *an epidemic* in education and needs new solutions and interventions (Sentell, 2015).

However, teachers can find it difficult to manage disruptive students while attempting to teach other students effectively in the classroom (Erdogan et al., 2010; Martens & Andreen, 2013). Previous researchers have demonstrated that suspending students for behavioral problems has less value and, at best, is a temporary solution to a long-term problem (Osher et al., 2011). Researchers have linked student suspension rates to increased student behavioral problems, high student dropout rates, and increased student contact with the criminal justice system (Talamo, 2017). Other solutions, such as sending the student to the counselor's office, are also less effective and contribute to school counselors' extensive caseloads and high job stress (Gnilka et al., 2015).

However, sending problematic students to the principal's or counselor's office is often a first step for teacher referrals in Louisiana (Talamo, 2017). Yet, these referrals often increase counselors' active caseloads (Gnilka et al., 2015). School counselors are vulnerable to harmful amounts of job stress due to their numerous responsibilities, various roles in the school, their work with students, and the confusing nature of their often poorly defined roles within the U.S. educational system (Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Culbreth et al., 2005; Gnilka et al., 2015).

Currently, the state of Louisiana is seeking new ways of addressing disruptive student behaviors in the classroom other than using referrals to the school counselor and suspension or expulsion of students (Talamo, 2017). Teacher interventions in the classroom could help decrease school counselors' caseloads, reduce school counselor

job-related stress, and might free up time for the school counselor to provide counseling services and advocacy for students, potentially increasing student wellness and success (Culbreth et., 2005; Woods & Thurston, 2014).

Researchers have found evidence that REBT is effective in increasing teacher self-efficacy and student achievement and that online consultants using REBT interventions with teachers could help increase student success rates (Warren & Baker, 2013). In addition, researchers have found that cognitive behavioral classroom interventions that students use could reduce their classmates' disruptive behaviors (McGoey, Schneider, Rezzetano, Prodan, & Tankersley, 2010). Yet after an exhaustive literature review, I was unable to find any research that demonstrated the impact of training teachers to use REBT ABC model-based interventions in the classroom to reduce the rate of disruptive student behaviors as an alternative strategy to student behavioral referrals to the school counselor. This study could be important in providing teachers with other student behavioral management strategies, thus helping to increase student learning and to reduce school counselors' enormous caseloads (Bryant et al., 2006; Culbreth et al., 2005).

Purpose of the Study

My original purpose for this quantitative study is described below. However, due to lack of participation, I had to ask for a change of procedure from the IRB. Following my original intent for this study, I describe my changed purpose and procedures. Throughout relevant sections of Chapters 1, 2, and 3, I further state how the study has changed from my original intent.

My original intent was to conduct a quasi-experimental research study to explore the effectiveness of teachers implementing cognitive behavioral REBT strategies using the ABC model in the classroom and the potential reduction of the frequency in teachers referring students to the school counselor for disruptive behavior. The sample for this study was to include teachers who volunteered from a Southern Louisiana school district. I was going to randomly select teachers from those who volunteered to participate in this study. I was going to assign a minimum of 42 teachers to the treatment group who would receive REBT ABC model intervention training from a qualified licensed professional counselor trained and qualified to instruct teachers in these strategies. I was then going to assign a minimum of 42 teachers to the control group who would not receive this training until after the end of the study. I provide details about the procedure for the selection process of participants in Chapter 3. The independent variable for this study was going to be teacher implementation of REBT strategies in the classroom with students who exhibit disruptive behaviors, and the dependent variable for this study was going to be secondary data of the number of student behavioral referrals to the school counselor between the two groups both pre- and postintervention.

After my change in procedure, my new purpose for this study was to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions in the classroom setting. My independent variables were age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teacher perception of support from student parents, and teacher

perception of ease of contacting a disruptive student's parents. The first dependent variable for this newly proposed study was the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor as measured by the demographic question: How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues? An additional dependent variable was the participants' scores from the Survey of Behavior Management Practices.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

My original research questions and hypotheses consisted of the following:

RQ: Do differences exist in the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor for students with disruptive behaviors between elementary teachers who have received REBT intervention training by a licensed professional counselor and those who have not?

H_0 μ1= μ2: There is no statistically significant difference in the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor for students with disruptive behaviors between elementary teachers who have received REBT intervention training by a licensed professional counselor and those who have not, after controlling for factors of socioeconomic status, as measured by the number of students who receive reduced-price or free lunch.

H_1 μ1= μ2: There is a statistically significant difference in the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor for students with disruptive behaviors between elementary teachers who have received REBT intervention training by a licensed professional counselor and those who have not, after controlling for factors of

socioeconomic status, as measured by the number of students who receive reduced-price or free lunch.

I proposed new research questions due to the changes of procedure within the study.

RQ1: Do age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parents have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

$H_0$1: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do not have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

H_a1: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parent, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's do have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

RQ2: Do the age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues?

$H_0$2: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do not have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

H_a2: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

RQ3: Do participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior

Management Practices questionnaire have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

$H_0$3: Participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices do not have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

H_a3: Participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices questionnaire do have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

Theoretical Framework

The following was my original theoretical framework for my originally proposed study. At the end of this section, I discuss my new theoretical framework for my changed design and method.

Rational Emotive Behavior Theory

I intended to use REBT, as developed by Albert Ellis (1999), as the theoretical framework for my study. Ellis posited that REBT involves assumptions about the reciprocal relationships between cognitions, emotions, and behaviors and that change in one domain (e.g., cognitions) can cause changes in the other domains (e.g., emotions or behaviors). Ellis also posited that specific types of maladaptive knowledge (i.e., irrational beliefs) are the core cognitive vulnerability for emotional disorders (Tiba, 2010). In rational emotive behavior theory, Ellis' basic hypothesis was that emotions stem mainly from beliefs, evaluations, interpretations, and reactions to life situations (Ellis, 1999). For example, the basic steps in REBT are (a) identifying the underlying irrational thought patterns and beliefs, (b) challenging the irrational beliefs, and (c) gaining insight and recognizing irrational thought patterns (Cherry, 2013).

Consequently, stemming from Ellis' theory, individuals can learn skills that can give them the tools they need to identify and dispute their own irrational beliefs. For my original study, under the framework of REBT theory, I intended to use the ABC model. The ABC model is a well-known approach that therapists use to treat irrational thinking and behaving for individuals struggling with emotional or behavioral issues (McLeod, 2015). Therefore, I hypothesized that REBT ABC model was one of the more useful applications that teachers can use in school settings to address disruptive student behaviors in the classroom and thus increase student success and reduce school counselor caseloads (Gnilka et al., 2015; Woods & Thurston, 2014).

I chose REBT for this original study, because REBT is an effective treatment for dealing with a host of dysfunctional emotions and maladaptive behaviors through cognitive restructuring (Turner & Barker, 2013). Cognitive restructuring includes a set of techniques to help individuals become more aware of their thoughts and to help them modify these thoughts when the thoughts are inaccurate or not useful. Moreover, individuals can use reason and evidence as a part of cognitive restructuring to replace inaccurate thought patterns with more accurate, believable, and functional thoughts (Boyes, 2013). The ABC model is an application of the principles of rational emotional behavior theory that an LPC can use to train teachers in how to modify the environmental antecedents, consequences, and contingencies analogous to disruptive student behaviors (School Mental Health, 2011).

In the ABC model, “A” represents the activating event or adversity that triggers a cognitive, emotional, and behavioral reaction. “B” represents the individual’s belief about the situation, and “C” represents the consequence of the individual’s interpretation of the event as shown through an emotional reaction and a behavioral response (Binggeli, 2011; Ellis, 1991). “D” stands for disputing the irrational belief as directly as possible and “E” symbolizes the effects of changing one’s interpretation of a situation (i.e., cognitive restructuring) (Boyes, 2013). Ellis (1999) suggested that people mistakenly blame external events for their behaviors. In other words, an individual’s interpretation of events causes his or her psychological distress and or behavioral disturbance.

In-service training to teachers from an LPC using REBT ABC model could aid in decreasing disruptions in the classroom setting, which could result in less disciplinary

referrals to the school counselor (Bank, 2011; Banks & Ziounts, 2009). Teachers using these interventions can help redirect students to exhibit rational beliefs, rather than irrational beliefs, which in turn can change student behavior (Mulhauser, 2011). Ellis conceptualized the ABC model as "I think, so I feel, and do" (Mulhauser, 2011 p. 11). In other words, a student's thoughts lead to a student's emotions, which then lead to a student's behaviors. Having teachers use the REBT ABC model to help change a student's thoughts can lead to changes in a student's emotions and behaviors and potentially then to a lesser number of student's disruptive behaviors.

Warren (2011) conducted a study that explored teachers' experiences with Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy where teachers participated in Rational Emotive Behavioral-Group Consultation. The sessions were for six sessions across 7 weeks. Data were collected with questionnaires administered at the conclusion of the group consultation. The purpose of the study was to explore teachers' reactions to Rational Emotive Behavioral-Group Consultation. There were 19 teachers that volunteered to participate. Participants were teachers at an elementary school (K-5) in eastern United States. All were female with 79% identified as Caucasian and 21% identified as African American.

Warren's data collection involved participants completing a questionnaire that included six items designed to illicit the teachers' views of the experience (Warren, 2011). Warren used a Consensual Qualitative Research (REB-GC) in the analysis of the data collected in the study. A team of three members analyzed the data. This team consisted of one school counselor and two former counselors. There were two categories

that emerged from the cross-analysis of the domains. The first category, increased well-being, demonstrated that the teachers' perceived that they, themselves, moved toward an overall healthier way of life. The second category, improved relationships, captured the teachers' perception related to their quality of interactions with others. Overall, Warren concluded that the findings of the study suggest that REB-GC was well received by participating teachers (Warren, 2011).

Self-Efficacy Theory

Due to the change in procedures, my new theoretical foundation became Albert Bandura's self-efficacy theory. According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy is defined as how a person believes their capability to produce a set level of performance that influence events that affect his or her life. Self-efficacy theory was based on the principle assumption that "psychological procedures, serves as a means of creating and strengthening expectations of personal efficacy" (p.193). Bandura went on to add that the theory of self-efficacy distinguishes between expectations of efficacy and response-outcome expectancies. Bandura (1997) also explained to readers that an outcome expectancy is a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes. Bandura (1997) went on to express that although a person may expect a certain activity to lead to a particular outcome, they may lack the motivation to perform the action, doubting their ability to do so. This theory relates to my study approach and research questions because this theory posits that a person's belief in their capability to provide a set level of performance can help reduce students' disruptive behaviors. Therefore, if the theory is correct, teachers who have more confidence in using behavioral strategies

would have made fewer referrals to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

I could have used transactional analysis (TA) identified by Berne (1964) as a therapeutic approach that leans towards cognitive and behavioral aspects and designed to help people evaluate past decisions considering their present appropriateness. Transactional analysis according to Berne is ideally suited to groups. Transactional analysis offers teachers a way of understanding what is happening on a social level within the classroom and within themselves. Transactional analysis provides a language to explain why certain classroom management techniques are more effective than others to include permission for the teacher to retain humanness in the face of adversity and bring greater awareness into the classroom and offer options with the possibility of teachers doing things differently. Therefore, because teachers would need training in transactional analysis, and I did not get teacher volunteers to participate in my original study, I chose not to use transactional analysis.

Another theoretical approach that I could have used for my study was Lazarus behavior therapy approach. This method required an inexpensive schoolwide intervention and as time progressed, more intensive interventions added for teacher use. Behavior therapy is geared more towards interventions for students to improve their behaviors in the class setting. In a study conducted by Walker, Ramsey, and Gresham, 2004, and building from work done by the U.S. Public Health Service in 2011, Walker and his colleagues developed a model with three progressively more intensive levels of intervention to address challenging behavior within the school setting. The three levels of

intervention were labeled as *universal, selected, indicated*. The levels of interventions were each related to behaviors exhibited by students in the class setting. Class-wide social skill training and well enforced school discipline codes were established for students. Therefore, the authors reported that this program design was implemented for all students that exhibited disruptive behaviors and more interventions added over time, and the fact that the study was geared towards students, this study was not appropriate for my study due to my targeted population for my study were the teachers and not the students. I will discuss both theoretical frameworks in more detail in Chapter 2.

Nature of the Study

At the end of this section, I describe the new nature of the study based on my new method and procedures. Originally, I was going to use a quantitative quasi-experimental research design to examine the effectiveness of in-service training for teachers in a Louisiana parish by an LPC using the REBT ABC model to instruct teachers to reduce the frequency of teacher referrals to the school counselor for students with disruptive behaviors. Finkelstein et al. (2008) posited that researchers could use a broad range of non-randomized interventions in quasi-experimental research. In addition, Finkelstein et al. (2008) indicated that researchers frequently use quasi-experimental designs when it is not ethical to conduct a randomized-controlled trial. Furthermore, Alvarez, Catena, Conroy, and Fernandez (2008) shared that this method is distinctive by objectivity, reliability, validity, and replication of results. Given that I wanted to determine whether an intervention with teachers would affect a reduction in the number of teacher referrals of students with behavioral disruptions to the school counselor, and that teachers are

already assigned to their classrooms, then the quasi-experimental design was the only appropriate method to achieve this goal.

I intended for the sample for my study to include elementary school teachers who teach grades three and four from a Southern Louisiana school district. Classroom size in the school district approximates 20 students per class (M. N. Robinson, personal communication, August 19, 2013). I was then going to randomly select a minimum of thirty teachers from those who volunteered to participate in this study. I was also going to randomly assign a minimum of 42 teachers to the treatment group who would have received the REBT ABC model intervention training from a licensed professional counselor trained in this model and I was going to assign 42 to the control group who would not. I discuss this training and how teachers will implement this model in their classroom and the process of random selection in full detail in Chapter 3 as well as the changes I made in my method and procedures. I intended for the outcome variable for this study to be the secondary data of the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors between the two groups pre-and post-intervention. The school already collects this irrespective of my study.

I intended to gather a baseline of student discipline referrals from all 42 classes during the first semester of the school year. Then at the start of the second semester, 42 of the 84 teachers were going to receive training from an LPC using REBT ABC model. At the end of the second semester, or at the end of the school year, I was going to total the number of student discipline referrals. My hypothesis was that the frequency of behavioral referrals would decrease for the students whose teachers had the REBT ABC

model training. I was then going to use an Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to address the hypothesis. The variable that was going to serve as the covariate was students' socioeconomic status (SES) as measured by the number of students in each class who received free or reduced priced lunch. I discuss the importance of this covariate in detail in Chapter 2.

However, due to the change in my procedures, I chose to use a quantitative survey method. The new nature of the study was for teachers teaching in K-12 within the entire state of Louisiana to take part in completing a brief survey to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom, and the relationship of teachers' confidence to the number of referrals teachers then made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. However only teachers in one parish ended up participating.

My independent variables were age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teacher perception of support from parents of students, and teacher perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student. The first dependent variable for this newly proposed study was the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor as measured the demographic questions: "How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues?" An additional dependent variable was the participants' scores from the Survey of Behavior Management Practices. I collected my data through Survey Monkey.

I used descriptive statistics and was able to identify the frequency count of the number of times a score was found in the data set. Basic descriptive statistics (i.e., often, confident, and success) were calculated to describe teacher's confidence in using the subscales to determine whether one variable is a predictor of another variable. I used the Survey of Behavior Management Practices (SBMP) and a demographic questionnaire to collect my data. The three subscales of the SBMP were: (a) How often have you used this strategy? (b) How confident are you in using this strategy? (c) How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior?

I will discuss the findings in full in Chapter 4.

Definitions of Terms

The following represent the operational definition of the terms for this study:

The ABC model: The REBT cognitive-behavioral ABC model is as I think, so I feel (and do). The components of the model are as follows:

"A" Activating Event – the actual event and the student's immediate interpretations of the event.

"B" represents students' belief about the situation, Beliefs about the event – this evaluation can be rational or irrational.

"C" represents the consequence of student's interpretation that is made of the event as shown through both emotional reaction and behavioral response (Binggeli, 2011; Ellis, 1991). Consequences – how you feel and what you do or other thoughts. Disputation involves challenging irrational beliefs to replace with rational beliefs (ABC Model, 2011).

"D" stands for disputing irrational beliefs as directly as possible by using fact and logic, not wasteful thinking, and "E" symbolizes the effects of changing one's interpretation of a situation that results from one actively examining and disputing parasitic/faulty thinking (Ross, 2006).

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA): The ANCOVA is a form of analysis of variance (ANOVA) to control for confounding variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) is a form of analysis of variance (ANOVA) that tests the significance of the differences among means of experimental groups after considering initial differences among the groups and the correlation of the initial measures and the dependent measures. The measure or the control variable, the pretest or pertinent variable (i.e., the pre-measure of student behavioral referrals for the study) is the covariate (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005). A report in Medical Statistics (2012) stated that an ANCOVA can increase the precision of comparisons between groups by accounting for variation on important prognostic variables; and to "adjust" comparisons between groups for imbalances in important prognostic variables between these groups.

American School Counselor Association (ASCA) national model: The ASCA National Model reflects a comprehensive approach to design, implementation, and evaluation of a school counseling program that improves student success that school counselors use during in-service training to schoolteachers (ASCA National Model, 2012). The American School Counselor Association National Model provides step-by-step tools to help a school counselor build each component of the school counseling program including foundation, management, delivery, and accountability (ASCA, 2012).

Classroom management: Classroom management is the process by which teachers and schools create and maintain appropriate behavior of students in classroom settings. The purpose of implementing classroom management strategies is to enhance prosocial behavior and increase student academic engagement (Emmer & Sabornie, 2015; Everston & Weinstein, 2006). Effective classroom management principles work across almost all subject areas and grade levels (Brophy, 2006; Lewis, et al., 2006). When using a tiered model in which school-wide support is available at the universal level, classroom behavior management programs have shown to be effective for 80-85 percent of all students (Kratochwill, DeRoos, and Blair, 2015).

Disruptive behaviors: Disruptive behavior is a broad behavior category, which includes many behaviors. Disruptive behaviors include both overt and covert actions. Examples of overt behaviors include sleeping, out of seat behaviors, creating excessive noise, leaving the class without permission, entering the class late, refusal to comply with directions, physical violence, or verbal violence. Some examples of covert behaviors include boredom, lack of motivation, and a disinterest in learning the subject matter (Longo, 2010).

Expulsion: An expulsion is the most severe disciplinary sanction that an educational program may impose. An expulsion is removal from all regular school settings for a period of not less than one school semester, during which time the school board shall place the pupil in an alternative school or in an alternative school setting unless the board is exempt per law from providing such alternative school or alternative setting (Children Code Article, 731A, 2014).

In-school suspension: This is when a pupil is no longer in his or her normal classroom setting but is still under supervision within the school. During in-school suspension, students may receive credit for their work. Should the student/pupil fail to comply fully with the rules for in-school suspension, he/she shall be subject to immediate expulsions (Louisiana Law Section 416 C., 2006).

In-service teacher training: In-service teacher training refers to the policies and procedures to equip teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school, and wider community (Afridi, Alija, & Raza, 2013).

Licensed professional counselor (LPC): Licensed professional counselors are professionals who provide flexible, consumer-oriented therapy (AMHCA, 2013). Licensed professional counselors help people cope with difficult life events and to manage serious mental illnesses. These counselors work as part of a health care team that may include doctors, nurse specialists, psychologists, and social workers (AMHCA, 2013).

Mental health professional: These are professionals with training in the treatment of mental health issues or disorders such as psychiatrists, psychologists, professional counselors, clinical social workers, or psychiatric nurses (Carnahan, 2012).

Parental involvement: Parental involvement in school is defined as parent-reported participation at least once during the school year: attending a general school meeting, attending a scheduled parent-teacher conference, attending a school or class

event, or volunteering in the school or serving on a school committee (McQuiggan & Megra (2017).

Rational emotive behavioral theory and approach: Rational emotive behavioral theory falls under the umbrella of cognitive behavioral theory. Rational emotive behavioral theory incorporates changes to thought processes and behaviors (Banks, 2011). The REBT approach is a practical method that identifies with goal setting and behavioral experiments that assist individuals in coping with, and overcoming, adversity as well as achieving goals (Ellis Institute, 2014). The aim for teacher uses of REBT is to change a student's behavioral problems by modifying the student's cognitive processes and structures; these approaches include coping skills, problem-solving, and cognitive restructuring methods (Beck Institute, 2013). The objective of REBT is to teach individuals to base their thinking on factual events and act because of an objective outlook rather than on self-defeating feelings about the events (Banks, 2011).

Self-efficacy: A personal belief in one's capability to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances (Artino, 2012).

School counselor role: The role of the school counselor is to work systemically to serve all students (ASCA, 2012). The school counselor's role is an implementation of a program that adheres to the principles of leadership, advocacy, collaboration, and systemic change (ASCA, 2012). School counselors address students' academic, career and social/emotional development needs b designing, implementing, evaluating, and enhancing comprehensive school counselor program that promotes and enhances student success (ASCA, 2012).

Socioeconomic status: Socioeconomic status is the social standing or class of an individual or group (American Psychological Association [APA], 2016). Socioeconomic status measurements are a combination of education, income, and occupation. Examinations of socioeconomic status often reveal inequities in access to resources including issues regarding privilege, power, and control (APA, 2016). For this study, I will measure socioeconomic status by obtaining archival data regarding students who receive free school lunch, reduced priced lunch, or those who pay full price.

Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP): The SNAP program provides monthly benefits that help eligible low-income households buy the food they need for good health (SNAP, 2015).

Suspensions: Disciplinary sanctions given to students for exhibiting disruptive behavior or conduct (Children's Code Article, 731A). A school principal may suspend any pupil from school who is guilty of willful disobedience, or who threatens a teacher, principal, superintendent, staff member, or employee of the local school board, or who acts toward the same with intentional disrespect (Children's Code Article, 731A Section 3a).

Teacher role: Aside from teaching a curriculum, the role of a classroom teacher also includes that of being a classroom manager. A large part of teaching involves coaching and mentoring that relates to social skills and behavior (Devlin, 2012).

Assumptions

My first assumption in relationship to this original study was that teachers would choose to volunteer to participate and would agree to engage in the training in the REBT

ABC model. This assumption was not met as I described throughout Chapters 1 through 3. My second assumption was that those teachers for whom the LPC provided training for would be truthful in referring students for behavioral issues if such a referral was legitimate and that teachers would not refrain from making such a referral to support this study. As noted, this described study did not take place. My third original assumption was that teachers in the control group would honestly refer students when necessary and not withhold referral to bias this study. My fourth assumption was that teachers would correctly use the REBT ABC model when intervening with student disruptive behavior. I discuss in Chapter 3 my assumptions related to the choice of method and statistical analyses.

My first assumption for my second study is that teachers will volunteer to complete the demographic questionnaire and the Survey of Behavioral Management Practices. My second assumption is that teachers will answer the survey and demographic questions honestly.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of my originally proposed study included public school teachers who were full time employees in a public- school setting who taught third and fourth grade students within a single school district in Southern Louisiana. Any teachers who had already been trained in REBT and the ABC model would be ineligible to participate in this study. I chose the state of Louisiana as the location for this study because of my proximity to the state and because the state of Louisiana has a problem with disruptive student behaviors in the classroom, resulting in lost instructional time for students, and

high school counselor caseloads (ASCA, 2017; Sayeski & Brown, 2014). Referring to my previous point, Louisiana public schools expel students at five times the national rate and issued out-of-school suspensions at twice the rate as the rest of the country (Carr, 2011; Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a). I discuss this in more detail in Chapter 2.

I intended to delimit participants for the original study to a minimum of eighty-four teachers who taught either the third or the fourth grade. I selected teachers from the parish of Southern Louisiana. My original intent was to not consider any alternative samples such as classrooms and teachers from other grades or other parishes due to time constraints, researcher accessibility, and school districts' permission. At the end of this section, I describe my new delimitations based on my changed method and procedures.

Originally, due to the nature of using a quasi-experimental design that does not allow for random selection, and the use of only 84 teachers who taught either the third or fourth grade in the one parish in of Southern Louisiana, this study might not have been generalizable to other grade levels, other districts, other schools, or to teachers and classrooms in other states (Creswell, 2014). However, this study could have been deemed as a first step toward possibly validating an intervention to help teachers develop an additional classroom management tool to manage disruptive student behaviors; thus, potentially reducing the number of referrals to the school counselor for student behavioral issues. In turn, I had hoped that the results of this study could have aided in reducing the caseload and work stress for school counselors in the Southern Louisiana.

Due to the change in procedures, my new scope and delimitations for the study was expanded to teachers in grades K-12 in public schools from the entire state of Louisiana, however, only teachers from one parish of Louisiana participated. Teachers from private schools or from other states were still not included. The potential generalizability of this new study is that the findings and conclusions from this study might be generalized to all teachers in the one parish where teachers participated and potentially they might also generalize to all teachers in the state of Louisiana.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation to this original study was my choice to use a quantitative quasi-experimental design. A weakness of the quasi-experimental design is that I could not randomly assign individuals to the intervention; and therefore, I would not have been able to ascertain if it was truly the intervention that produced the results or if other variables were present in one classroom over another (Creswell, 2014). For example, some students in the control group could have displayed more motivation to change their behavior, due to the negative consequences of the referral to the school counselor and possible suspension, than those in the treatment group. In addition, knowledge from the use of a quasi-experimental design might be too abstract for direct application to specific individuals (Beck & Polit, 2010). For example, the generalizability of research results might have applied to only a few people who were participating in the study and may not generalize outside of the participant group, or outside of the single school district, from which participants originated. I originally chose this design because the groups of teachers and their classrooms were already in place and classroom or teacher

redistribution could not occur for the sake of this study. In addition, given that the research question was quantitative in nature then a quantitative design was clearly the best choice for this study (Creswell, 2014).

Another limitation for this original study was the choice to use the REBT ABC model as the classroom intervention in which to train teachers. I made this choice due to past research that indicated REBT was effective for increasing teacher self-efficacy and student achievement (Banks, 2011; Banks & Ziounts, 2009; Warren, 2010) and that online consultants using REBT ABC interventions with teachers could help increase student success rates (Warren & Baker, 2013). In addition, researchers found that students using cognitive behavioral classroom interventions could reduce their classmates' disruptive behaviors (McGoey et al., 2010). I also based my choice to use the REBT ABC model to fill a gap in the literature concerning the systemic process that relates to teacher intervention, student behavior in the classroom, and student behavioral referrals to school counselors. After I conducted an exhaustive literature review, I did not find any studies that evaluated the effectiveness of training teachers to use REBT ABC model interventions to attempt to help teachers reduce the rate of disruptive student behaviors in the classroom as an alternative strategy to student behavioral referrals to the school counselor.

One additional concern I had with my original study design was that the comparison groups could accidently become aware of the treatment conditions. One method I would have used to reduce this limitation was to have the LPC, who would have provided the REBT ABC model training to teachers, to communicate to the teachers that

they should not discuss any REBT or ABC model techniques with their students or with other teachers in the district, until after the study was completed. Also, just to clarify, the individual students in each classroom were not the intended sampling unit, the entire classroom was the intended sampling unit.

Due to my change of procedures, the limitations for my new method and design were that self-efficacy beliefs do not always guarantee positive expectations (Pajares, 1996). Correspondingly, Köksal Özdemir et al. (2018) posited that teachers who have a greater degree of self-efficacy beliefs prefer to give more implicit and unfocused feedback. Therefore, when learners have too high of self-efficacy and are over confident, they may set themselves up for failure (Ormrod, 2008).

Additionally, Bandura (1986) posited that people with high efficacy and high skills may lack the resources and equipment to perform and when performances are impeded by disincentives, inadequate resources, or external constraints, self-judged efficacy will exceed the actual performance. Another noted limitation was that according to Bandura (1993), the lower a person's self-efficacy, the less that person is willing to experiment with new ideas. Pedneault-Salters (2018) posited people are often biased when they report their own experiences.

Therefore, limitations to my new method are that participants may give more socially acceptable answers rather than being truthful and subjects may not be able to assess themselves accurately. Another limitation noted in self-report is that rating something yes or no can be too restrictive. Questions used that required a yes or no response in my study were: Are you a full-time teacher? And Do you agree to participate

in this study? A limitation to using questions that require “yes or no” response is that often the “yes or no” response forces participants to choose between options that does not encapsulate the respondent’s feelings (Allen, 2017). Therefore, in my study, respondents were denied the opportunity to participate and were immediately sent to a “Thank you” page upon responding “no” to the question that required a yes or no answer.

Significance of the Study

Some teachers have classes where one, or a few students, exhibit persistent or significant behaviors that are disruptive, oppositional, distracting, or defiant within the classroom (Atkins, Cullinan, Epstein, Kutash, & Weaver, 2008; Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017; Drelilinger, 2015). In these cases, teachers use their classroom management strategies without successfully eliminating the obstacles to learning that these problem behaviors pose (Adkağ & Haser, 2016; Epstein et.al, 2008). Students exhibiting emotional and behavioral problems in the classroom can significantly affect the learning environment and often teachers refer those disruptive students to the school counselor (Bidell & Deacon, 2009; Bryan et al., 2012). The American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 2008) reported that school counselors are responsible for coordinating effective counseling programs through counseling, consulting, information, and referrals. The implementation of contemporary school counseling programs could be difficult without the appropriate amount of support from administration and faculty (Rock, Remley, & Range, 2017; Schimmel, 2008).

Results from my originally intended research might have enhanced awareness for educators, school counselors, community leaders, the mental health community, the

school board, parents, and guardians that training teachers to provide REBT ABC model interventions, might help teachers decrease disruptive student behaviors in the classroom; therefore, resulting in fewer referrals to the school counselor. In addition to teachers receiving training based on the ASCA training model from school counselors, the use of providing training to teachers by an LPC could have assisted in decreasing disruptions in the classroom setting. Continuous outcome research on the use of this training might affect how school districts allocate funding for external assistance to help train teachers in managing disruptive behaviors. This study could have also contributed to positive social change because of the awareness brought to teachers, counselors, society, and the community that the training of teachers in the REBT ABC model might have promoted more positive interactions among students and teachers to include a decrease in disruptive behaviors of students in the classroom. In addition, results from this study might have contributed to positive social change through a decrease in the amount of time that teachers and school counselors spend responding to students' behavioral difficulties and thus increase time students spend in educational instruction. The results from this intended study might also have had the potential to contribute to knowledge that could have reduced the large caseloads of school counselors in the State of Louisiana and thus contributed to counselor wellness, reduction of counselor stress and incidence of burnout, and provide an increase in counselors' positive services to students.

The significance for my new study, still applied in that the new change of method and procedures might enhance an awareness for educators, school counselors, community leaders, the mental health community, the school board, parents, and guardians, with

insight of teacher's awareness of their perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom, with the potential that there will be a fewer number of referrals that teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

Summary

The literature I reviewed in Chapter 1 concerned the research problem related to student behavioral disruptions to the learning process within the state of Louisiana. Again, the State of Louisiana leads the nation in the number of out-of-school suspensions and expulsions (Carr, 2011; Drelilinger, 2015). Also, notable within the chapter was that the number of referrals to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors has an impact on teacher instructional time to students and can also lead to large caseloads of school counselors and higher job-related stress (Bryan et al., 2012).

My purpose for this original study was to have an LPC train a minimum of 42 teachers to use the REBT ABC model to help reduce student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. Then I was going to compare the treatment and control groups for differences in average count of referrals of students who exhibit disruptive behaviors in the classroom to the school counselor between the treatment group whose teachers are using REBT ABC model strategies and the control group who are not. This training was going to be my attempt to provide teachers with additional classroom management strategies to help them work more effectively with students with behavioral issues in the classroom. Teacher implementation of this training could have help reduce the number of referrals to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors. In addition, a reduction

of referrals to the school counselor could have helped reduce school counselors' caseloads and reduce job stress, burnout, and counselor job turnover (Bryan et al., 2012; Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Culbreth et al., 2005; Gnilka et al., 2015; Gündüz, 2012; Woods & Thurston, 2014). My hypothesis was that the distribution in referrals for disruptive student behaviors would be significantly lower among children whose teachers received REBT ABC model training by an LPC than for those students whose teachers did not.

Due to the need to change my method and procedures, because no teachers volunteered for the training, my current study focused on exploring teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions in the classroom.

The theoretical framework I intended to use for my first proposed study was REBT by Albert Ellis, particularly his ABC model (Ellis, 1999). Previous researchers have found evidence that REBT interventions can be effective in increasing teacher efficacy, student achievement and success, and help students who successfully employ these techniques reduce the number of behavioral disruptions of their peers (Warren, 2010; Warren & Baker, 2012). However, due to the necessary change in my method and procedure, the theoretical foundation of my current proposed study was Albert Bandura's self-efficacy theory. I chose the self-efficacy theory because the self-efficacy theory was appropriate to answer the proposed research questions and the self-efficacy theory was a good fit in terms of explaining the results of my study.

The nature of my first proposed study was a quantitative, quasi-experimental design. I chose this design as the appropriate method due to the nature of the research question, the implementation of an intervention, as well as the need to use intact groups for the experimental group and the control group. I would have asked teachers from elementary schools in Southern Louisiana to volunteer for the study. From this list of volunteers, I was going to select 84 teachers to participate in the study. I would then assign 42 teachers for inclusion in the experimental group and 42 teachers to compose the control group. Each teacher's classroom would have approximately 20 students. Per previous report, this is the base classroom size of this school district in Southern Louisiana. I would have used an ANCOVA to address the hypothesis with the covariate being free or reduced fee lunch status as measured by the number of students in each classroom who receive a free or reduced priced lunch.

The nature of my second study was a quantitative design using a survey method. I chose this design as the appropriate method due to the nature of the research questions, and the survey questionnaire. I solicited teachers from the parishes of Louisiana to complete a survey questionnaire via Survey Monkey, although only one parish participated. Implications for positive social change regarding the first proposed study included possibly providing teachers with additional behavioral management strategies to reduce the number of student referrals to the school counselor, thus increasing student instructional time, while also reducing counselor caseloads. The implications for positive social change for my new proposed study is that it will add to the literature on teacher

self-efficacy regarding teachers using behavioral interventions with disruptive students and the results could help lead to training that would help enhance teacher self-efficacy.

In Chapter 2, I discuss my literature search strategy that included the scope and the nature of the literature review. I also provide a discussion of the previous research that examined disruptive student behaviors within the classroom setting, the teacher interventions, and strategies to address them, and the research methods to explore their effectiveness. I also provide a rationale for the selection of the originally proposed study variables, by expanding on the scope of the problem of student disruptive behavior in the classroom and school counselors' high caseloads and stress levels within the state of Louisiana. In addition, I provide more depth in Chapter 2 for the choice of the theoretical foundation for the study, as well as how previous researchers have used the REBT theory to explore similar research problems. I also discuss any changes that were made, where necessary, as they applied to my new proposed study. I then conclude Chapter 2 with a summary of the main tenets present throughout the chapter.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Louisiana public schools have the highest rate of expelled students (five times the national rate), and the state's issuance of out-of-school suspensions due to disruptive behaviors shown by students in the classroom occur at twice the rate of the rest of the country (Carr, 2011; Drelilinger, 2015; Morgan, 2010). Schools often respond to disruptive student behaviors with approaches that have little value or effectiveness, such as suspension or expulsion of the student (Osher et al., 2010; Sugai, 2007; Talamo, 2017). Disruptive student behavior in the classroom results in a need for teachers to refer students to the school counselor, which in turn creates larger active caseloads for counselors (Bryan et al., 2012). This can lead to increased counselor stress and burnout (Bryan et al., 2012; Gnilka et al., 2015; Gündüz, 2012). School counselors are vulnerable to harmful amounts of job stress and burnout due to their high student caseloads and numerous responsibilities (ASCA, 2017; Bryan et al., 2012; Gnilka et al., 2015; Gündüz, 2012; Woods & Thurston, 2014). School counselor stress and burnout can result in lowered self-efficacy for counselors and a high job turnover rate due to counselors leaving the profession (ASCA, 2017; Bryan et al., 2012; Gnilka et al., 2015; Gündüz, 2012; Woods & Thurston, 2014).

My purpose for my originally planned quantitative quasi-experimental research study was to explore the effectiveness of teachers implementing cognitive behavioral strategies in the classroom and the frequency with which teachers referred students to the school counselor for disruptive behaviors. I hypothesized that in-service training to help teachers learn the use of the REBT ABC model and strategies might assist in decreasing

disruptive student behaviors and thus help reduce teacher referrals of students to the school counselor. As mentioned, high teacher referrals of students to the school counselor for disruptive behaviors increases school counselors' workloads and job stress and prevents them from providing more positive counseling services to students, such as engaging in counseling activities and student advocacy (Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Bryan et al., 2012; Carr, 2011; Culbreth et al., 2005; Gnilka et al., 2015). After my change in procedure, my new purpose for this study was to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

School counselors often have enormous caseloads with high student-to-counselor ratios (Gnilka et al., 2015). Thus, school counselors are often overworked, overwhelmed, and overburdened (Gnilka et al., 2015; Gündüz). This can cause school counselors to have feelings of stress, burnout, low self-efficacy, disillusionment, and exhaustion regarding their profession (Bickmore & Curry, 2013; Gnilka et al., 2015). Due to these various duties and being tasked with managing students with behavioral issues from teacher referrals, school counselors often cannot engage in the activities they were trained for: student welfare and mental health (Bickmore & Curry, 2013). Therefore, many school counselors ultimately leave their positions due to feeling disenchanted with their workload and the school environment (Bickmore & Curry, 2013).

Teachers often refer students to the school counselor for student behavioral issues (Bryan et al., 2012). These referrals cost students educational time, create a negative

climate within the school, and add to school counselors' caseloads and stress (Bryan et al., 2012). Further, research has supported that teacher expectations and teacher perceptions of students both impact students' success and can affect if a teacher makes a disciplinary referral to a school counselor (Bryan et al., 2012). Teacher perceptions and actions toward students can also reinforce student disruptive behavior, creating a negative pattern that can adversely affect the student, teacher, and school counselor (Bryan et al., 2012). Therefore, providing teachers with a tool they can use in the classroom to address student behaviors in a positive manner may help both teachers and students create a positive learning environment that helps lead to student success, while reducing the workload, stress, and feelings of burnout experienced by school counselors (Bryan et al., 2012).

Disruptive student behavior is a problem for teachers, school counselors, and student learning. Dunlap et al. (2010) and Westling (2010) shared that managing behaviors in the classroom is a chief concern of educators. Louisiana teachers have reported that difficulty in managing the classroom becomes the determining factor in their decisions to leave the profession within the first 5 years of their careers (Dunlap et al., 2010; Southern Poverty Law Center, 2009). In addition, Dunlap et al.'s (2010) survey had over 2,300 responses that indicated teachers want assistance with classroom management. Dunlap et al. (2010) focused on student misbehavior and concluded that when students misbehave, they learn less and prevent their peers from learning. A survey by the APA also confirmed that teachers want help with classroom management and instructional skills. Past research indicates a need for in-service training for teachers to

learn how to handle students disrupting the classroom (Adkağ & Haser, 2016; Dunlap et al., 2010).

Moreover, to address student disruptive behavior, Beaty-O'Ferrall et al. (2010) found that many teachers feel that they understand students' problems and dilemmas. Beaty-O'Ferrall et al. suggested specific strategies that integrate knowledge and skills to help teachers develop a strong management system. Beaty-O'Ferrall et al. (2010) stated that teachers mistakenly try to communicate their understanding in ways that result in a power struggle between teacher and student, which only creates distance in the relationship. It is imperative that teachers prepare themselves to face the challenges of working with students with behavioral issues in the classroom. Therefore, Beaty-O'Ferrall et al. (2010) suggested that teachers learn to apply strategies from the field of counseling and psychotherapy, such as building empathy, to address challenging behaviors of students.

As noted, my method and procedure changed due to lack of teacher participation in the intended training. However, my purpose for my new study remained the same. My research was intended to assist the state of Louisiana in improving educational services to students by providing information that could reduce the number of referrals teachers make to school counselors for behavioral issues in the classroom. In my new study, I collected data from teachers using the Survey of Behavior Management Practices; teachers responded to questions in Survey Monkey so that I could explore their confidence using behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the

classroom and the relationship of teachers' confidence to the number of referrals they make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions.

In Chapter 2, I present a review of the literature that demonstrates the impact of the roles and responsibilities of teachers, counselors, parents, and students in the school setting. Also, in Chapter 2, I discuss the literature search strategy and the theoretical foundation for the study, both for the originally planned study and for my final study. In the summary for this chapter, I describe the themes found in the literature review.

Literature Search Strategy

The search strategy I used for this study included my university's library databases consisting of PSYCInfo, Dissertation Database, EBSCOhost, Academic Search Premier, ProQuest, ERIC, and Sage Premier. The search terms I used were *disruptive behavior, classroom management, discipline, teaching tools, consequences of class disruptions, parent role, external counselors, American School Counselor Association (ASCA) National Model, clinical mental health counselor, in-school suspension, in-service teacher training, mental health professional, rational emotive behavioral therapy, school counselor role, suspensions, teacher role, ABC cognitive behavioral model,* and *analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)*. The articles for this research were peer-reviewed and were published within the past 6 years. However, some articles were more than 7 years old but were included in support of my intent to use the REBT ABC model. With the change of procedures, my search strategy did not change. However, I added the following keyword: *self-efficacy*.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical foundation I intended to use for my original study was Ellis' (1997) REBT. REBT was also the model of intervention that I intended to use in my first proposed study; specifically, I was going to use Padesky's (1997) training on cognitive therapy. The National Association of Cognitive Behavioral Therapists (2008) described cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) as a general classification of psychotherapy with other approaches, with each approach having its own developmental history. In the following, I describe the tenets of REBT theory. Following this section, I describe the new theoretical foundation I used for the actual completed study.

History and Premise of REBT

Ellis' REBT is one of the cognitive behavioral approaches to psychotherapy (Watson, 1999). Ellis (1956) based REBT on the premise that irrational or maladaptive beliefs can influence an emotional or behavioral response. Watson (1999) hypothesized that cognition and behavior play an important role in the development and maintenance of emotional problems. Watson (1999) supported the premise that REBT is an effective approach for dealing with clients who have the ability and desire to make changes in their lives.

Ellis (1956) did not design REBT to help people get rid of their irrational beliefs, but rather to minimize their emotional disturbances and self-defeating behaviors by replacing irrational thoughts with rational and realistic thoughts. Ellis' original name for his theory was rational therapy (RT; David, 2010). Ellis' idea for RT was that if an individual wants to change various dysfunctional psychological outcomes, that individual

should change their irrational beliefs. Even though RT targeted emotional and behavioral consequences, many professionals perceived RT as ignoring emotions (David, 2010). Therefore, Ellis corrected this misperception by changing the name of RT to rational emotive therapy (Ellis, 1961). Afterward, there was the misperception that RET was "too cognitive" and ignored the behavioral tradition of behavioral interventions. This feedback led Ellis to change the name once again to REBT (Ellis, 1993).

Ellis (1993) suggested that irrational or maladaptive beliefs distort an individual's perception of events and influence their emotional and behavioral response. Therefore, Ellis developed a model to explain this relationship. In the ABC model, the *A* stands for *activating event*, the *B* represents the *belief* about the event, and the *C* signifies the *consequences of that belief* (Ellis, 1993, p. 9). The consequence can either be emotional, behavioral, or both (Dryden & David, 2008; Ellis, 1993). Dryden and David (2008) shared that the activating event does not cause the emotional or behavioral consequence, but rather it is the person's belief about the event that largely causes the emotional or behavioral reaction. For example, if a boy named Tyrone asks to play with the toy of a boy named Harold, but Harold ignores Tyrone's request (activating event). Tyrone might have the thought or belief that Harold would rather let another boy named Talmadge play with the toy instead (belief). Therefore, Tyrone might then take Talmadge's toy and refuse to return it (consequence of the belief).

The focus of practitioners using REBT is to help an individual explore his or her thoughts, emotions, and behaviors (Ellis, 1999). Ellis proposed that REBT uses a variety of cognitive, emotive, and behavioral techniques. Dryden and David (2008) shared that

the empirical evidence supporting REBT and the ABC model is well known. Additionally, the authors concluded that REBT is an efficacious form of psychotherapy for a large spectrum of disorders and populations.

Application to the Originally Proposed Study

Ellis' REBT, and specifically the ABC model, was appropriate for my originally proposed study because REBT focuses on uncovering irrational beliefs, which could lead to unhealthy negative emotions and behaviors for students in the classroom (Ellis, 1999). Therefore, teachers could apply REBT as an educational process where the student can learn to identify his or her own irrational and self-defeating beliefs (Ellis, 1999). Then, by teachers helping the student learn how to replace his or her irrational beliefs with more productive rational alternatives, it can diminish the emotional or behavioral consequences for the student. In other words, REBT can help students to understand that they have choices in how they respond to an activating event and can learn to assist themselves to make choices that have consequences that are more positive. This can also help reduce students' disruptive behavior and thus reduce the frequency of teachers' referrals to the counselor's office.

Research Using REBT

There is precedence for my intention to use REBT as an intervention with schoolchildren in the classroom. Banks (2011) provided a meta-analysis to develop a single conclusion on research exploring the educational applications of REBT to assist children to deal with daily life events. Banks (2011) combined pertinent studies to compile research that concentrated on incorporating REBT in the classroom of students

with emotional disturbance (ED). Banks' (2011) also discussed practical classroom strategies that provided practical suggestions for the implementation of REBT. This included suggestions for teachers to instruct students on the basic principles of REBT, including the need for students to distinguish fact from opinion, to identify and understand feelings, and recognize and identify irrational thought patterns.

Banks (2011) posited that for children to learn to deal with life in a complex society, schools should devote attention to organization and theoretically sound programs that employ a preventive approach to mental health. Most scholarly reviews of educational applications concentrate on incorporating REBT in the classroom of students with (ED) (Banks, 2011). Banks (2011) meta-analysis demonstrated that implementing REBT in classroom settings entails increasing responsibility of administrators and teachers to meet national and state mandates. In addition, Banks suggested that with developmentally appropriate modifications, REBT could be effective in disputing irrational beliefs with children and adolescents in classrooms. The results from Banks meta-analysis supports the contention that a mental health curriculum would prove to be a benefit in classroom settings to address and remediate the socio-emotional needs of students and to support creation of a safe learning environment for students.

Furthermore, Banks and Zionts (2009) conducted a literature review of studies spanning from 1980-2007 and explored the efficacy of using REBT with children and adolescents. These authors were particularly interested in REBT as a potential intervention in educational classrooms, because they found that less than 2% of school-aged children received the support they needed to be successful in an educational setting.

Unless students were diagnosed with an emotional or mental health disorder, they did not quality for special education or services under the Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act (Banks & Zionts, 2009).

In the research they reviewed, Banks and Zionts (2009) found that children who had been therapeutically treated, or exposed, to REBT interventions had lower anxiety, decreased depression, increased frustration tolerance, improved academic performance, increased coping skills, and improved social skills and self-concept (Banks & Zionts, 2009). They also determined that instructors have used REBT in many educational settings including after-school programs, Upward Bound programs, as well as in traditional educational settings. Banks and Zionts (2009) found that REBT interventions were successful with a variety of populations such as at-risk youth, children in special education, children with conduct disorder, as well as with children with emotional and behavioral disorders. Researchers also found these interventions to be successful with youth of different ethnicities as well as across all levels of socioeconomic status (Banks & Zionts, 2009).

Banks and Zionts (2009) specifically searched the literature to determine if REBT could be an effective tool for use by teachers in the classroom and found that many types of programs for youth have been based on REBT such as Let's Get Rational, Mrs. Miggins' Room, Thinking, Feeling and Behaving, You Can Do It, and The Expressions Guessing Game among others (Banks & Zionts, 2009). Therefore, Banks and Zionts (2009) posited that students could thrive in the classroom with support provided by their teachers (Banks & Zionts, 2009). These authors have posited that REBT is well suited for

use in the classroom because teachers can easily learn these skills and apply them with students throughout the school day. However, the research on use of REBT in the classroom has focused on student outcomes. After an exhaustive literature review, I found no studies that explored whether REBT interventions by teachers in the classroom directly led to a reduction in teacher referrals of students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

Another theory that I could have chosen as a theoretical foundation for this originally proposed study is reality therapy. Reality therapy is based on choice theory and centers on the premise that the only behavior an individual can control is his or her own behavior (Casstevens, 2010). In addition, I could have also chosen dialectical behavior therapy (DBT), which uses therapy to validate current thought patterns while coaching the individual to change unhealthy behaviors. Within DBT four specific skills are taught: interpersonal effectiveness, distress tolerance and reality acceptance skills, emotion regulation, and mindfulness. Another consideration is acceptance and commitment therapy (ACT), which is a mindfulness approach developed by Steven Hayes in 1982 (Bailey, 2013). This type of model seeks to help an individual to accept his or her thoughts and emotions, without judgement. The goal is to help the individual distance himself or herself from who he or she is, and from what he or she thinks (Bailey, 2013). One example might be to help the individual change his or her thoughts from “I am an anxious person,” to “I am feeling anxious because of my current situation” (p. 2).

However, REBT and the ABC model was a better fit for students who have a history of behavioral disturbances in the classroom, because REBT ABC model provides

structure in the way of learning for students that emphasizes the ability of students to make changes in their behaviors by changing their cognitions (Dryden, 2002b; Richmond, 2013). Via the model, teachers have an easy step-by-step process for students to learn to identify their faulty beliefs and how those beliefs impact their behavior. Through use of the model, teachers can help educate students that it is not the actual event that causes the student's emotions or behaviors, but in fact, it is their beliefs that create those consequences. Therefore, the use of this model could empower students to learn to control their behavioral and emotional outbursts in the classroom.

Through my first proposed study, my intent was to examine the distribution in referrals for disruptive behaviors among children whose teachers have received cognitive-behavioral training from an LPC using the REBT ABC behavioral model. The LPC would have provided teachers with the skills to help students reformulate students' dysfunctional beliefs into more sensible and realistic beliefs that could lead to a decrease of disruption in the classroom. The LPC would have done this using the manual developed by Padesky (1997) that provides step-by-step instructions as to how to apply the ABC model. I discussed the Padesky training manual and process in more depth in Chapter 3.

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory

For my new study, I chose Bandura's self-efficacy theory as my theoretical foundation. The concept of self-efficacy was developed by child psychologist Albert Bandura, as part of his theory of social-cognitive learning (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is defined as a personal belief in one's capability to organize and execute courses of

action required to attain designated types of performances (Artino, 2012). According to Taylor (2012) one's self-efficacy beliefs form in early childhood as a child deals with a variety of experiences and situations. Taylor stated that the development of self-efficacy beliefs continues throughout life as people learn, experience, and develop into more complex human beings

Bandura (1977) stated that there are four ways to develop self-efficacy beliefs: Performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, low self-efficacy, and high self-efficacy. Performance accomplishments was identified by Bandura (1977) as when an individual has successful experiences it leads to that person experiencing greater feelings of self-efficacy. Vicarious experience is defined by Bandura as observing someone else perform a task and then the task is performed by the observer through modeling, thus giving the impression that if that person succeeds then the task must not be too difficult.

Also noted by Bandura was that when other people encourage and convince an individual that he or she can perform a task, the individual tends to believe that he or she is capable of performing the task. A person's physiological state, moods, emotions, physical reactions, and stress levels may influence how he or she feels about his or her personal abilities. Low self-efficacy is identified as a person failing to deal with a task or challenge that can undermine and weaken self-efficacy. On the other hand, a person with high self-efficacy is confident and feels no anxiety or nervousness, he or she may experience a sense of excitement that fosters a greater sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Howes, Hamre, and Pianta (2012) alluded that teachers' feelings of low self-efficacy are significant predictors of conflict with children and that teachers with higher

levels of personal stressors are associated with substantially lower levels of classroom behavioral management. Howes et al. also shared that conflict with students is not just related to student behavior but is correlated with the teacher's emotional state.

Due to the necessary change in my method and procedure, in my new proposed study I explored teacher perceptions of teachers' confidence (i.e., self-efficacy) to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. Therefore, I chose Bandura's self-efficacy theory because it is the best theory to explain the results of my study.

Other theories that might have fit this new study design were B. F. Skinner's (1960) learning theory. In this theory teachers would use positive reinforcement such as the teachers would reward students by giving them positive praise. Learning theory, as posited by Skinner, is that teaching techniques are characterized by a strong aversive control of behavior whereas the contingencies of reinforcement are not optimally arranged and there is no provision for progressive approximation to the final behavior desired. Skinner also posited that in using learning theory, reinforcement is too infrequent. I did not choose Skinners learning theory because participants in my study were the teachers not the students.

I could have also used William Glasser's (1988) choice theory for my new study design. However, choice theory used in the classroom is considered as a needs-satisfying place for students because we all have needs such as survival, love and belonging, power, freedom, and fun. Kohn (2006) discussed that student directed learning theory is where

teachers allow students to explore topics that interests them most whereas the emphasis is on learning and should be on achievement rather than the learning process. A theory that aims at helping professionals in understanding not only why individuals behave the way they do, but also how people can take control to lead happier lives is defined as choice theory (Kohn).

Self-Efficacy Research

During my literature review, I found numerous research articles that focused on teachers and self-efficacy. I also found a few articles that focused on self-efficacy and students. Arcelay-Rojas (2018) conducted a study to explore Puerto Rican preservice teachers' perceptions of sources of self-efficacy. The researcher reported that participants were pre-service teachers who were enrolled in a student teaching practicum at an accredited private university in the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico. The researcher stated that the university received accreditation by the Middle States Association of Colleges and schools and the Educator Preparation Program (EPP) by the Teacher Education Accreditation Council. Further, Arcelay-Rojas specified that the criteria that guided the campus selections were program accreditation and student graduation rates.

The participants selected were enrolled in their student teaching practicum, represented varied elementary level specializations, and participated voluntarily. Arcelay-Rojas placed the pre-service teacher participants in focus groups according to their specialization and their availability, to explore Puerto Rican preservice teachers' perceptions of sources of self-efficacy. The specializations at the elementary level were

as follows: general education (n = 1), language arts–English (n = 1), special education (n = 3), primary (n = 2), and arts (n = 2).

The researcher divided the pre service teachers into two focus groups. Participants in group 1 (n = 5) consisted of three males and two females, and Group 2 (n = 4) consisted of all females. The investigator indicated that within the groups open questions and follow-up questions were used as the data collection process. All pre-service teachers were at the very end of their EPP, and the researcher reported that the focus groups were conducted during the last week of the students' teaching practicum, just preceding graduation.

During the focus group interview, the moderator collected information on the feelings and opinions of the participants through the discussion of issues and experiences or from a given phenomenon. Arcelay-Rojas audio-recorded and transcribed the focus group discussions after obtaining the written consent of the participants. Arcelay-Rojas proposed the following questions: "How do preservice teachers describe the verbal and social persuasion received during their teaching practice?" "How do preservice teachers describe their affective states as a teacher?" "How do preservice teachers describe vicarious experiences regarding their teacher role?" and "How do preservice teachers describe their mastery experiences regarding their teacher role?"

Arcelay-Rojas (2018) indicated that the theoretical framework used for analyzing the opinions and beliefs of preservice teachers was Bandura's social cognitive theory. Usher and Pajares (2008) posited that social cognitive theory proposes that as part of human behavior, people develop and create self-perception. The design used for this

study was the social constructivist perspective to guide the research because it is inductive and captures participants' perceptions (Usher & Pajares, 2008).

Also indicated by Arcelay-Rojas (2018) were that the analytical process included the categorization of the answers, the extraction of general concepts, and the synthesis of the topics. Arcelay-Rojas pointed out that in order to achieve a more direct connection with the data, he personally carried out the processes of transcription, categorization, and synthesis. He also suggested that transcribing the audio-recordings in full after each focus group session allowed for a review of group dynamics, opinions of participants, and the effectiveness of the questions used before starting the analysis of the second group.

Cooperating teachers and university professors provided feedback and support in the form of verbal and social persuasion during the practicum experience and the participants agreed that the verbal and social persuasion support received during the participant's practicum, influenced them when they were provided constant and substantial feedback, support, and communication. The practicum student participants indicated that the feedback and support helped to lessen the feelings of anxiety experienced by the teaching experience. Participants in the study agreed that at the beginning of the field experience, they had feelings of nervousness, anxiety, and panic. Each participant expressed the intensity of emotions they felt while teaching.

Participants identified the influences of teachers as role models and identified the teachers that inspired them to pursue the teaching profession. Participants identified various educational practices that they could apply successfully in the classroom. Other participants emphasized that building a good relationship with, and between, the students

was essential to their teaching practice. Participants also agreed that the support of cooperating teachers and practice supervisors could be influential factors if they provide feedback and constant communication with the purpose of reducing the feelings of anxiety produced by the experience of teaching practice.

This study elucidates on my topic in that the teachers field experience is central to self-efficacy development (Zee & Koomen, 2016). Arcelay-Rojas noted limitations to the study as evident that the findings are limited to preservice teachers who participated in this study and only conclusions applicable to them are allowed. Arcelay-Rojas pointed out that further research is necessary to reveal how self-efficacy evolves after the first year of experience in the teaching profession and that more research is needed to explore the opinion of cooperating teachers and university supervisors regarding their perception of their mentees' efficacy and how they perceive their role in promoting the mentee's perceived self-efficacy. Therefore, my study will overcome the limitation of using one group by expanding my study to teachers throughout the state of Louisiana. However, in my study, only one parish responded.

Infurna, Riter, and Schultz (2018) conducted a quantitative study to examine the extent to which specific preschool teacher characteristics would contribute to teacher self-efficacy. The researchers examined the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction. The researchers used a demographic questionnaire that asked teachers to identify whether they were employed by the school district or Community Based Organizations (CBO), if they were a Universal Pre-kindergarten (UPK; 4 -year-

olds) or Early Pre-kindergarten (EPK; 3-year-olds) teacher, how many years of teaching experience they had, their age, degree(s) earned, certification status, and job satisfaction.

Infurna et al. (2018) distributed 173 teacher demographic questionnaires to preschool teachers via Survey Monkey. Infurna et al. reported that (n = 124, 72%) of the questionnaires were completed and returned, however, only teachers who had completed the teacher self-efficacy portion of the demographic questionnaire were included (83 or 48%). Participants in the study totaled 83 preschool teachers. Participant were early childhood educators either directly employed by the school district or other community-based organizations. The researchers presented the teacher demographic information as follows: Males (n = 4), females (n = 78), American Indian (n = 1), Black (n = 7), Latin (n = 1), White (n = 67), Hispanic (n = 4), Not Hispanic (n = 70), and 70 participants provided their age (n = 79). The researcher did not provide the range of ages.

The researchers asked the teachers to complete the demographic questionnaire via Survey Monkey. Infurna et al. (2018) informed the participants that the completion of the demographic questionnaire was voluntary. Questions from the demographic questionnaire asked teachers to identify whether they were employed by the school district or CBO, if they were a UPK or EPK teacher, how many years of teaching experience they had, their age, degree(s) earned, certification status, and their job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured by a single-item measure frequently used in workplace research but has been also used in a cross-cultural study on teacher self-efficacy (Klassen et al. 2009). Teacher self-efficacy, developed by Tschannen-Moran et al. 2001, was measured by the 24-item, long version of the teacher self-efficacy scale.

Each item was rated on a 9-point Likert scale (from 1= strongly disagree to 9 = strongly agree). The Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) is comprised of three distinct domains: (a) efficacy for instructional strategies, (b) efficacy for classroom management, and (c) efficacy for student engagement.

In previous empirical studies conducted on preschool teacher self-efficacy, the three subscales demonstrated strong scale score reliability and evidence of validity (Brown, 2005; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; 2007). Teacher outcomes were measured by the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS; Pianta, La Paro & Hamre, 2008). Trained and reliable observers observe a classroom for 20 minutes, then step out of the room and score the cycle. The trained observers complete this process five times, for a total of five cycles. Scores from the five completed cycles are averaged to provide domain scores and an overall CLASS score. Four dimensions made up the emotional support domain: positive climate, negative climate, teacher sensitivity, and regard for student perspectives.

Three dimensions made up the classroom organization domain: behavior management, productivity, and instructional learning formats. The final three dimensions made up the instructional support domain: concept development, quality of feedback, and language modeling, for a total of 10 dimensions. Trained and reliable CLASS observers were assigned to each EPK and UPK classroom. Each observer assigned a subjective score from 1 to 7 to each of the 10 dimensions. The scores range in a continuum of low-quality (one, two), medium (three, four, five), and high (six, seven) levels of quality.

In the Infurna et al. (2018) study, the researchers asked the participants if they had a positive or negative judgment about their current position of employment. The researchers ran a series of multiple linear regression analyses to examine whether teacher demographic and classroom variables were predictive of teacher self-efficacy (Infurna et al). The authors reported that upon receiving IRB approval from both school district and lead author institution, the researchers used data from the 2015-16 academic year from a larger longitudinal research study examining the early childhood education program of a small to mid-size urban school district in Western New York. Infurna et al. analyzed Pearson correlation coefficients to determine inter-correlations between teacher self-efficacy and teacher demographics. Infurna et al. also reported that number of years of teaching experience outside of the birth – 2nd grade settings were negatively correlated to student engagement ($r = -.23$; $p = < .01$), instructional support ($r = -.30$; $p = < .01$), and overall teacher self-efficacy ($r = -.22$; $p = < .01$). Infurna et al. reported that overall, teacher self-efficacy was positively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -.232$) and location of employment, district, or CBO teacher, ($r = .28$). Job satisfaction was positively correlated to location of employment, district, or CBO teacher ($r = .44$). The instructional support ($r = .30$) and classroom management ($r = .32$) domains of teacher self-efficacy were significantly correlated to location of employment, district, or CBO teacher.

Infurna et al. (2018) conducted a series of multiple linear regression analyses to examine whether teacher demographics were predictive of the dependent variable identified by the researchers as teacher self-efficacy. Infurna et al. also conducted a

multiple regression analysis to examine the relationship between teacher self-efficacy, and teacher outcomes. The variables included in the regression models are the variables that were statistically significantly correlated with teacher self-efficacy. Overall teacher self-efficacy served as the dependent variable for the regression model. Model one included years of teaching experience outside the birth-2nd grade setting. Model two included job satisfaction. Model three included location of employment (district vs. CBO). Model four included the three domains that make up the CLASS (emotional support, classroom organization, and instructional support).

The first regression model demonstrated that teaching experience outside of the birth to 2nd grade setting was significantly associated with teacher self-efficacy ($\beta = -.232$, $p < .01$). When job satisfaction was added, the second regression model a strong and significant association with teacher self-efficacy ($\beta = .294$, $p < .01$). Location of employment was added to model three and the researchers identified that location of employment demonstrated a non-significant association with teacher self-efficacy ($\beta = .169$, $p < .01$). The results of the fourth model demonstrated that the emotional support ($\beta = -.02$), classroom organization ($\beta = .17$), and instructional support ($\beta = .049$) domains of the CLASS showed a non-significant association with teacher self-efficacy. Infurna et al. (2018), reported that the R2 of the model only accounts for 13% of the variance in predicting preschool teacher self-efficacy. The linear regression modeling reported years of teaching experience outside the birth-2nd grade setting $\beta = -.232$, $t (1, 79) = -2.124$, $p < .05$ and job satisfaction $\beta = .294$, $t (2, 78) = 2.793$, $p < .01$ were statistically significant predictors of preschool teacher self-efficacy.

This research study conducted by Infurna et al. (2018) carried important implications for pre-school teacher self-efficacy. Noted by the researchers were that school districts should consider the amount of years of teaching experience a teacher has outside of the birth-2nd grade setting. Moreover, Infurna et al. indicated that teacher recruitment policy should take into consideration whether the teachers applying for the preschool teaching position has experience outside of the birth-2nd grade setting. According to the researchers, the school district in which the CBO's were located should provide CBO teachers with opportunities to become members of the teacher retirement system. Infurna, et al. also reported that perspective CBO teachers should be better informed about what may not be offered to them when accepting a teaching position outside of the school district.

This study is important to my study because findings from this study served as a foundation for my research study with the focus on the importance of the need to measure teacher self- efficacy concentrating on number of years teachers have taught, to include confidence level of using provided skills in the class setting, and experience of teacher.

Infurna, Riter and Schultz (2018) indicated the limitations of the study were that the study concentrated on educating at-risk children living within the perimeter of the same urban school district. Therefore, the researchers stated that it is not clear whether these findings about teachers' sense of self-efficacy are generalizable to other populations of EPK and UPK teachers in rural and suburban school districts. Another limitation noted by the researchers were that the findings from this study cannot be generalized to similar samples of urban school district teachers. My study overcame the limitation of this study

because my study targeted teachers who were in the state of Louisiana that included teachers who taught Kindergarten through 12th grade, even though only one parish responded and participated.

Moreover, Reaves and Cozzens (2018) used a quantitative method of study to investigate whether correlations existed between teachers' perceptions of elements of a safe and supportive school climate working environment in relation to teachers' intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy beliefs, and the degree of significance when teachers felt safe and supported versus those who do not.

The researchers' questions were: "To what extent do teachers perceive that their schools' exhibit specific elements of a safe and supportive school climate (i.e. positive staff relationships, accountability and consequences, clear expectations and parameters, and active monitoring)?" "Do correlations exist between the elements of a safe and supportive school climate and a teacher's (a) intrinsic motivation and (b) self-efficacy beliefs?" " Is there a significant difference between (a) the intrinsic motivation and (b) self-efficacy of teachers who feel safe and supported in schools versus those that do not?" "Which of the four elements of a safe and supportive school climate has the greatest impact on (a) intrinsic motivation and (b) self-efficacy of a teacher?"

The participants in this study were approximately 250 teachers from seven public schools in West Tennessee school districts. The participants ranged from middle school, junior high, and high school teachers. Reaves and Cozzens (2018) reported that there were no randomized samplings included for the purpose of this study, but rather the researchers incorporated a population of convenience given the volunteer nature of the

study among schools that were willing to participate in the study. The research group or convenience sample only comprised 204 participating teachers with an overall response rate of 81% (i.e., 204 out of 250). For the categorical variable, Race and Ethnicity, Caucasian (n = 135, 66.2%) was the largest percentage of participants. The majority of the participants were female (n = 135, 66.2%), and males accounted for (n = 69, 33.8%). All participants were from public schools in West Tennessee school districts (n = 204, 100%).

The researchers: (a) reviewed and submitted documentation to superintendents and principals for potential research requests, (b) made personal contact with principals when instructed that the principals were the final arbiter for the research request, (c) constructed a Google form, and (d) submitted the Google link to the appropriate Tennessee schools with coded information to collect live data. Reaves and Cozzens (2018) did not explain the live data collection procedure: however, they shared that job responsibilities of participants, comfort of confidentiality, and accuracy of data, required a password protected electronic survey to maintain participants anonymity. After receiving approval from the principals to participate in the study, the researchers submitted a Google form to the principals, and the principals distributed the information through the schools‟ emailing systems.” Participating teachers completed the survey from August 2016 through January 2016.

The primary data collection tools for this study were: (a) the Safe and Supportive School Questionnaire and (b) the Attitude Toward Teaching Survey. The Safe and Supportive School Questionnaire was created by the researchers to obtain data regarding

four elements of a safe and supportive school that included: (a) positive staff relationships, (b) accountability and consequences, (c) clearly defined parameters and expectations, (d) and active monitoring. This questionnaire used eight questions that were vertically and horizontally aligned (i.e., agreed upon by the set of content standards and the assessment used to measure the standards), with the Safe and Supportive School initiatives.

The Safe and Supportive School initiatives were put into place by the Department of Education to improve conditions for learning and teaching, that included school climate and safety. The Likert-scale instruments collected responses were (strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree, strongly disagree) based on how participants personally perceive the elements of a safe and supportive school. The authors did not provide the numbers that went with the descriptors in the study. The Attitude Toward Teaching Survey created by Farmer (2010) used 17 questions. The original instrument was developed from literature surrounding major motivational concepts that have been shown to have a positive impact on teacher effectiveness that included: (a) intrinsic motivation, (b) extrinsic motivation, (c) incremental beliefs, (d) collective efficacy, and (e) self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993; Blackwell et al., 2007; Elliot & Dweck, 2005; Goodard et al., 2004; Meuller & Dweck, 1998; Zimmerman, 2000). Reaves and Cozzens (2018) indicated that the current research did not use all items from the original survey as evident that this research study only explored intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy, thus only the items that measured intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy were used.

The researchers reported the results from research question one that read: “To what extent do teachers perceive that their schools exhibit specific elements of a safe and supportive school climate (i.e. positive staff relationships, accountability and consequences, clear expectations and parameters, and active monitoring?” The researchers did not reveal the questions but only provided the number from which the questions were used in the areas of clear expectations and parameters, positive staff relationships, active monitoring, accountability, and consequences that ranged from 2 to 10 for each segment. Observations for clear expectations and parameters, which included questions 16 and 19 from the Safe and Supportive School Questionnaire, that the researchers did not identify, ranged from (r = 2.00) to (r = 10.00), with an average of r = 8.77, SD = 1.25). Observations for positive staff relationships, which included questions 12 and 14, that the researchers did not list, ranged from (r = 2.00) to (r = 10.00), with an average of r = 8.39, SD = 1.58). The observations for active monitoring, which included questions 7 and 26, that were not listed by the researchers, ranged from (r = 2.00 to (r = 10.00), with an average of r = 8.05, SD = 1.41). Observations for accountability and consequence, which included questions 4 and 6, that were not identified, ranged from (r = 2.00) to (r = 9.00), with an average of r = 7.11, SD = 1.58). Overall, teachers perceived that their leadership had clear expectations and parameters in place (M = 8.77). In addition, teachers professed that staff members exhibited positive staff relationships at their school (M = 8.39). A mean of (r = 8.05) from responding teachers, believed that administrators and colleagues knew and cared about the extent to which their job duties were performed. Researchers reported that an average of r = 7.11, from responding

teachers showed that teachers believed they were held accountable for their job performance and valued the administrators' opinion of their job performance

Reaves and Cozzens (2018) reported that the results of research question two "Do correlations exist between the elements of a safe and supportive school climate and a teacher's (a) intrinsic motivation and (b) self-efficacy beliefs?" indicated that Spearman correlation analyses were conducted among the following variables: (a) accountability and consequences, (b) active monitoring, (c) clear expectation and parameters, and (d) positive staff relationships, and intrinsic motivation. The correlation coefficient between accountability and consequences and intrinsic motivation was ($r = -0.31$, $p < .001$), which indicated a moderate, negative relationship. Reaves and Cozzens shared that when teachers felt as if they were held more accountable for their work, it was noted that their intrinsic motivation decreased.

There were significant positive correlations between active monitoring and intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.45$, $p < .001$). The correlation coefficient between active monitoring and intrinsic motivation was ($r = 0.45$, $p < .001$), which indicated a moderate relationship and indicated that as teachers felt more certain that administration, faculty, and staff members cared about their performance, the teachers' intrinsic motivation increased. There were significant positive correlations between intrinsic motivation and clear expectations and parameters ($r = 0.57$, $p < .001$). The correlation coefficient between intrinsic motivation and clear expectations and parameters was ($r = 0.57$), indicating a large relationship. This indicated that as intrinsic motivation increased, teachers increased in their understanding of expectations, policies, and procedures.

The researchers reported that there were significant positive correlations between intrinsic motivation and positive staff relationships ($r = 0.51$, $p < .001$). There was a significant positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and positive staff relationships ($r = 0.51$, $p < .001$). The correlation coefficient between intrinsic motivation and positive staff relationships was ($r = 0.51$), indicating a large relationship. This indicated that as intrinsic motivation increased, the relationship among staff members became more positive.

Reaves and Cozzens (2018) conducted a Spearman correlation analyses among the following variables: accountability and consequences, active monitoring, clear expectation and parameters, positive staff relationships, and self-efficacy.

The independent samples t-test results were significant, $t (202) = -5.91$, $p < .001$, in that the results suggested the mean of intrinsic motivation were significantly different between the low group and high group. Intrinsic motivation in the low group were significantly lower than the intrinsic motivation in the high group. Reaves and Cozzens (2018) reported that the data revealed that those who felt safe and supported within their school had significantly higher intrinsic motivation.

Moreover, question four results of the linear regression model were significant, $F (4, 199) = 47.92$, $p < .001$, $R2 = 0.49$, and indicated that approximately 49% of the variance in intrinsic motivation were explainable by teachers' perceptions of accountability and consequences, active monitoring, clear expectations and parameters, and positive staff relationships. Active monitoring was not a significant predictor of intrinsic motivation, $\beta = -0.08$, $t (199) = -0.84$, $p = 0.403$. Based on this sample, a one-

unit increase of accountability and consequences did not have a significant effect on intrinsic motivation. Accountability and consequences significantly predicted intrinsic motivation, $\beta = 0.46$, $t\ (199) = 2.23$, $p = 0.027$. This indicated that on average, every one-unit increase of active monitoring resulted in a 0.46-unit change in intrinsic motivation. Clear expectations and parameters significantly predicted intrinsic motivation, $\beta = 0.89$, $t\ (199) = 6.65$, $p < .001$. The researchers reported that on average, every one-unit increase of clear expectations and parameters resulted in a 0.89-unit change in intrinsic motivation. Positive staff relationships significantly predicted intrinsic motivation, $\beta = 0.47$, $t\ (199) = 4.48$, $p < .001$. This indicated that on average, every one-unit increase of positive staff relationships resulted in a 0.47-unit change in intrinsic motivation.

This study explicated on my variables in that teachers who are supported in the school setting have higher self-efficacy when clear expectations and parameters from their administrators actively monitor their teaching behavior. Reaves and Cozzens (2018) study is important to my study because it is paramount that educational leaders and policymakers remain abreast of the evolving changes within the teaching profession through continued research, monitoring and improved programs to ensure success for teachers.

Reaves and Cozzens (2018) reported limitations of the study were that only teachers were included in the sample, thus limiting the scope of perceptions from all stakeholders. Reaves and Cozzens indicated that another limitation involved the sample population that only consisted of teachers from rural West Tennessee school systems, represented by teachers in the middle school grades through high school grades. The

researchers also reported that the sample size was a limitation taken into consideration, and even though the sample size population was diverse, the findings in the study may have shown different trends if the sample size had been larger, included all stakeholders, and included all grade levels.

Reaves and Cozzens (2018) also alluded that due to the limitations of the study, results from the study may not be appropriate for all demographical regions and educational settings in which the generalization does not apply. My study overcame the limitation of the sample size that consisted of teachers represented in the middle school grades through high school grades as evident that my study participants were expanded to teachers who taught Kindergarten through 12th grade in Louisiana although only one parish within the state participated in my study.

Even though teachers are my targeted population, I chose to incorporate a few studies on self-efficacy and students to show that the self-efficacy scale has been used by researchers in other evidenced based literature. Correspondingly, Khan (2013) conducted a quantitative experimental study to find a relationship in the college academic setting between academic self-efficacy, stress, coping skills, and academic performance. Khan described this study as a pilot study to provide insight into the characteristics of students who perform well in college. Khan stated his aim was to identify some of the variables which can impact the likelihood of success in college. More specifically, the study aimed to identify characteristics of successful students. The researchers used the Academic Self-Efficacy scale to measure student's self-efficacy (Khan, 2013). Sixty-six undergraduate students, 17 men (26%) and 49 women (74%), from a public university in northwestern

United States participated in this study. The age range of the participants was 18 to 52 (M = 20.9). One student identified as black -African American (2%), two as Hispanic-Latino (3%), two as European (3%), six as bi-racial (9%), and 55 as White-Caucasian (83%). There were 20 freshmen (30%), 24 sophomores (36%), 15 juniors (23%), six seniors (9%), and one that identified as five or more years (2%). Additionally, 47 participants (71%) were planning on pursuing a degree higher than a bachelor's degree. Research Question 1: Association between academic self-efficacy and academic performance. Research Question 2: Association between stress coping skills and academic performance. Research Question 3: Association between academic self-efficacy and stress coping skills.

The academic Self-Efficacy Scale was used to measure academic self-efficacy where participants were asked questions such as "I know how to schedule my time to accomplish my tasks." The COPE Inventory was used to measure stress coping skills. There are 15 scales with 4 items each for a total of 60 items with questions "I try to grow as a person as a result of the experience" or "I just give up trying to reach my goal. 1 (I usually don't do this at all), 2 (I usually do this a little bit), 3 (I usually do this a medium amount), and 4 (I usually do this a lot). The Demographic Questionnaire contained a variety of demographic questions that were asked that included self- reported college GPA, rated on a 4.0 scale, to measure academic performance. High school GPA, Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT) scores, and or American College Testing (ACT) scores were also obtained. Whether or not participants are currently working and the number of hours per week they work, and if they are a full time or part time student were

attained. Other demographic questions that were asked included age, ethnicity, gender, year in college, current or potential major, transfer status, plans to continue education past bachelor's degree, and first-generation college student. The author used the Academic Self-Efficacy scale that consisted of 8 items on a 7- point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Very Untrue) to 7 (Very True). The author indicated that points 2 thru 6 on the scale were not labeled. Participants were asked to rate on a 1 to 7 Likert scale how well they believed they performed on certain academic tasks. Khan proposed such questions as "I know how to schedule my time to accomplish my tasks."

Sixty-six undergraduate students participated in the study to include 17 males and 49 females. Academic performances were measured using the participants' college GPA. The results showed that the Academic Self-Efficacy and the Planning subscales of the COPE Inventory were positively correlated with GPA ($r = .49$, $p < .01$ and $r = .32$, $p < .05$). In addition, Academic self-efficacy was positively correlated with the COPE Inventory subscales, which were Positive Reinterpretation and Growth ($r = .36$, $r = .35$, $p < .01$), Acceptance ($r = .46$, $p < .01$), and Planning ($r = .25$, $p < .05$). Academic self-efficacy was negatively correlated with the COPE Inventory subscale Substance Use ($r = -.32$ at $p < 0.1$). The academic self-efficacy, the range for the total scores of the eight items were between 24 and 56 with $M = 41.5$ and $SD = 7.4$. Khan (2013) indicated that although there were a number of significant correlations identified in the study, the correlations were small.

This study elucidates on my research topic because Khan's (2013) study clearly reported that the number of variables measured in his study does not represent the

population, because the study participants were from one public university in northwestern United States. In contrast, participants in my study were from one state, which is not representative of the population, even though my study was expanded to the entire state, only one parish in the state of Louisiana participated. Khan (2013) identified a limitation of this study that included the sample size being small and that participants' GPAs were self-reported and therefore the accuracy of the GPAs reported could not be assured. In my study I too relied on the responses as reported by the teachers. Another limitation for the study were that the varying range of reliability for the COPE inventory was a limitation in that there were a few subscales with low coefficient alphas.

Literature Review

I engaged in an exhaustive literature review and categorized articles per subject matter and in this section, I discuss the literature related to classroom management, teacher referral practice, exclusionary discipline, teacher' in-service training and teacher interventions. The new variables I chose for my second study proposal's dependent variables was the participant scores on the SBMP for research question one "Does age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from parents of students, and teachers' perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student predict teachers' scores on the three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?" and research question two "Is the age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from parents of students, and teachers'

perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student related to the number of students teachers' refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues?, and research question number three "Are participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the SBMP questionnaire related to the number of students that teachers refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by demographic asking how many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for student who exhibit behavioral issues.

The SBMP scale has three subscales: How confident the participant was in using the strategy? How successful the participant thought the strategy was in managing students' behavior? How often the participant had used the strategy?

The predictor variables for my research study were age of the teacher, the number of years the participant has been teaching as an educator, the number of grade levels the participant has taught, teacher perceived parental support, and teacher perceived ability to contact parents as measured by the demographic questions:

- What is your age?
- How long have you worked as a teacher in a K-12 classroom?
- What grade levels have you taught since becoming a teacher?
- How much support do parents with children at your school give to the teaching staff?

- How easy or difficult is it to get in contact with parents of disruptive students?

Within this section, I discuss the impact on school counselors regarding high caseloads, counselor stress, burnout, job satisfaction, and job turnover, as well as the steps the State of Louisiana has taken to address this problem. I end my literature review with a description of the roles and responsibilities of school counselors, within the United States in general, and Louisiana school counselors specifically. Finally, I discuss how my intended first proposed study could have aided in the goals and objectives of the state and how my current study contributes as well. During my initial search for articles and dissertations, I identified studies that appeared to have beneficial information for my current study. Within the subtopics, I discuss and critiqued research that most related to the proposed study.

Classroom Management

Classroom management is an important element of pre-service teacher training and in-service teacher behavior (Reinke et al., 2013; Sayeski & Brown, 2014). Forty eight percent of teachers stated that disruptive student behaviors in the classroom were their largest concern as a teacher (Reinke et al., 2013). This percentage jumps to 97% for those teachers who instruct in the early elementary grades such as for grades three and four, which is the target group for my intervention for this study (Adkağ & Haser, 2016; Reinke et al., 2013). Classroom management addresses routines for the learning environment, time management, teaching, learning activities, content, student-teacher attitudes, and discipline (Rawlings, Bolton & Notar, 2017). Within a classroom setting, it can be difficult for teachers to instruct per the curriculum when students act out (Adkağ

& Haser, 2016). Such disruptive student behaviors can create a need for teachers to attempt to redirect student inappropriate behavior. Such redirection may be difficult or ineffective when teachers are also trying to teach the curriculum at the same time (Adkağ & Haser, 2016; Erdogan et al., 2010).

Examples of typical classroom strategies that teachers historically report included: (a) antecedent-based intervention that is an intervention that manipulates antecedent conditions, such as the environment, task, or instruction (e.g., seating, music, tutoring, choice making, computer-assisted instruction), (b) consequence-based interventions where teachers use reinforcement and punishment to alter the frequency of target behavior (e.g., praise, reprimands, prizes, privileges, response), and (c) self-regulation interventions that are aimed at the development of self-control and problem-solving skills to regulate cognition and behavior (e.g., self-instruction, self-monitoring, self-reinforcement) (Gaastra, Groen, Tucha & Tucha, 2016).

Foley (2011) provided tips for teachers to manage their classrooms. Foley suggested that teachers take charge of their classes by focusing on the disruptive student, while continuing to teach. Some suggestions made were to:

- Give students the opportunity to choose their seat.
- Give incentives to encourage students to do their best on assignments (short homework assignments, homework passes, pencils, word find books, tickets for prizes such as small toys, free time on the computer, passes for no homework or permission to turn in late homework).

- Keep an eye on students (Teachers should always position himself or herself so that all students are visible, and teachers should be sure there are no shelves, computer equipment, or class supplies that can block his or her view. Teachers should also try to face students as much as possible when teaching.
- Establish consequences for student behavior.

Research on Classroom Management

However even with these established methods, disruptive student behaviors in Southern Louisiana school districts have continued to be a significant problem (Carr, 2011; Department of Louisiana Believes 2017a). Therefore, more research is needed to find potential best practices or empirically validated methods to help teachers with disruptive students (Rock et al., 2017). In this section, I will discuss some of the current research on this topic.

Dunlap et al. (2010), Westling (2010), and Reinke et al. (2013) posited that managing behaviors in the classroom are a chief concern of educators. Teachers reported that difficulty in managing the classroom influenced their decisions to leave the profession within the first five years of their careers (Adkağ & Haser, 2016; Sayeski & Brown, 2014). In addition, Dunlap et al.'s survey had over 2300 responses that indicated teachers wanted assistance with classroom management. Dunlap et al.'s (2010) study focused on student misbehavior and concluded that when students misbehave, they learn less and prevent their peers from learning. A survey conducted by the APA also revealed that teachers tended to identify the desire to have help with classroom management and

instructional skills. Past research alludes that there is a need for in-service training for teachers to learn to handle students disrupting the classroom (Dunlap et al., 2010).

Even though classroom management is a popular topic to research in applied behavior analysis, few empirical substantiated methods to effectively disseminate classroom techniques into school settings is available (Merritt, 2010; Reinke et al., 2013). There are three main classroom management areas that exist in the literature that researchers have studied independently, and in combination, to find best classroom management practices. The classroom management areas researchers listed were: (a) ecological factors, (b) behavioral principles, and (c) curricular modifications (Merritt, 2010).

Conversely, Beaty-O'Ferrall, Green, and Hanna (2010) suggested specific strategies that integrate knowledge and skills from education, counseling, and psychotherapy to help teachers develop a strong management system identical to the development of personal relationships with students. Beaty-O'Ferrall et al. (2010) shared that many teachers assume they understand students' problems and dilemmas, and mistakenly try to communicate their understanding in ways that does not prove helpful to the student. The authors suggested that rather than engage in a power struggle with students, teachers should acknowledge the skill or skills students achieve and redirect inappropriate skills and that doing so may empower students to focus on the appropriate skills they master. In conclusion, the authors state that teachers must be ready to face the challenges of working with young adolescents. These studies demonstrate that teachers

can learn to apply strategies from the field of counseling and psychotherapy, such as building empathy, to address challenging behaviors of students.

Scholarly articles that related to school suspensions (Iselin, 2010; Lamont, 2013; Losen, 2011), teacher referrals (Kindelan, 2011; Lewis, 2010; Pane & Rocco, 2012), as well as counselor referrals (Amatea, 2010; Bachner & Orwig, 2008; Cholewa, Fitzgerald, & Smith-Adcock, 2009) are abundant; however, after an exhaustive literature review, no studies were found that explored the use of an LPC to train teachers in REBT ABC model to help students who exhibit behavioral disruptions to the learning process in an attempt to solve the problem of high student suspension and expulsions as well has high school counselor caseloads, which has been demonstrated to contribute to counselor burnout, lowered job satisfaction, and high job turnover rates. Therefore, it is not certain whether an LPC providing training to teachers can affect student problem behaviors and thus serve to reduce school counselors' large caseloads. Given that I could not conduct my originally intended study, this still remains uncertain.

Waller and Higbee (2010) used a quantitative research design to explore the effects of fixed-time (FT) reinforcement on escape-maintained behavior of students in a classroom setting. Escape-maintained behavior is behavior that a person exhibits when he or she desires to be left alone as shown by a student's effort to avoid doing work or tasks (Carr, Geiger, & LeBlanc, 2010). Fixed-time reinforcement is a schedule of reinforcement that a teacher delivers after a fixed number of correct responses. For example, a fixed ratio of schedule of two indicates that the teacher delivers reinforcement

after every two correct responses. Per Heffner (2001), the fixed ratio is a form of continuous schedule and works well for learning a new behavior.

Participants for the study were two children that teachers identified as displaying highly disruptive behaviors in the classroom. One student was 13 years old and had a diagnosis of emotional disturbance. The other student was a 14-year-old and had a diagnosis of a learning disability in math. The research question for the study was "What are the effects of fixed-time escape on inappropriate and appropriate classroom behavior?

During math class, the fixed-time reinforcement sessions for students become active. Teachers conducted fixed-time reinforcement sessions during the students' scheduled math class. A functional analysis (i.e., a benchmark for assessment of problem behaviors) was the second step was then piloted with two procedural modifications (ignore attention and role-play, that are variations to facilitate differential responding and recognize interaction effects). Results demonstrated FT escape from tasks resulted in a substantial decrease in disruptive behavior and an increase in time engaged on tasks for both participants. This study is important to my study because findings of this study provides evidence for the effectiveness of relatively thin fixed time reinforcement schedules for treating problem behaviors in the classroom setting using staff as the behavior change agent (Austin & Soeda, 2008).

Oliver, Rechly, and Wehby (2011) provided a meta-analysis to examine the effects of teachers' universal classroom management practices in reducing disruptive, aggressive, and inappropriate behaviors. The research questions were:

- Do teacher's universal classroom management practices reduce problem behavior in the classroom with students in kindergarten through 12th grade?
- What components make up the most effective and efficient classroom management programs?
- Do differences in effectiveness exist between grade levels?
- Do differences in classroom management components exist between grade levels?
- Does treatment fidelity affect the outcomes observed?

These researchers addressed their questions through a systematic review of the literature and a meta-analysis of the effects of classroom management on disruptive or aggressive student behavior. There were 12 studies in the review.

The results of the analysis indicated that teachers who use effective classroom management strategies can expect to experience improvements in student behavior, and whole-class room multi-component programs for classrooms has a significant positive effect on decreasing problem student behaviors (Oliver et al., 2011). Students in the treatment group from each study showed less disruptive, inappropriate, and aggressive behavior in the classroom. This study is important to my study because it lends support for my original hypothesis that teacher interventions in the classroom can help reduce student disruptive behavior.

Managing the classroom can help teachers to increase student success and create a productive learning environment. Foley (2011) posited that it is helpful to decrease disruptive behaviors when teachers focus on the disruptive student by acknowledging the disruptive student and allowing the disruptive student some decision making to help

decrease the disruptions. Dunlap et al. (2010) stressed the importance of acknowledging that disruptions in the classroom prevent all students in the classroom from learning. Moreover, when there is a positive classroom environment, it creates an atmosphere of mutual respect.

Piwowar, Thiel, and Ophardt (2013) evaluated the effectiveness of a training program for in-service secondary school teachers in classroom management. The objective of the study was to investigate the use of Kompetenzen des Klassen management: classroom management competencies. This is a training program developed by the authors for in-service secondary teachers. The researchers' original aim for the training program was to improve teacher competencies in classroom management; the second aim is to investigate the impact of different instructional methods on teachers' evaluation of specific training modules. Thirty-seven secondary school teachers from nine urban schools in Berlin and Brandenburg (Germany) volunteered to participate in the study. Nineteen teachers were in the intervention group (IG) 63% female, their ages ranging from 29-62 (M = 20.26) years of teaching experience. In the control group (CG), 56% were female with ages ranging from 22 to 60 years of age with an average of 11.48 years of teaching experience.

A quasi-experimental design was used to examine the four hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 1 – "Learning Outcome: Both the intervention group and the control group will demonstrate increased declarative knowledge of classroom management, as they both participated in learning opportunities that foster declarative knowledge" (Piwowar et al., 2013, p.4).

- Hypothesis 2 – Behavioral Level: After the training, teachers will be prepared to deal effectively with disruptions (Piwowar et al., 2013, p.4).
- Hypothesis 3- Student off task behaviors will decrease and student engagement will increase (Piwowar et al., 2013, p.4).
- Hypothesis 4 – Teachers' self-reflection and training transferability will increase (Piwowar et al., 2013 p. 4).

Teachers rated themselves so that the researchers could obtain an assessment of knowledge. The researchers analyzed the data using SPSS 19, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) and repeated measures Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) with the alpha-level set at $p < .05$. Concerning the first hypothesis, the authors reported that KODEK and traditional training approaches could positively affect declarative knowledge on classroom management. The ANOVA analyses reveal significant change over time for all participants on the dimensions of rules, $F (1, 35) = 7.15$, $p = .011$, $\eta p2 = .17$, procedures, $F (1, 35) = 8.01$, $p = .008$, $\eta p2 = .19$, dealing with disruption, $F (1, 35) = 12.62$, $p = .001$, $\eta p2 = .27$, and working alliance, $F (1, 35) = 16.33$, $p < .001$, $\eta p2 = .32$, indicating large effects. Two further medium effects occur regarding conflicts among students, $F (1, 35) = 2.21$, $p = .109$, $\eta p2 = .07$, and clarity of program of action, $F (1, 35) = 2.09$, $p = .157$, $\eta p2 = .06$, neither was statistically significant. There were medium interaction effects of group and time on the dimensions rules, $F (1, 35) = 3.25$, $p = .080$, $\eta p2 = .09$, procedures, $F(1, 35) = 2.55$, $p = .119$, $\eta p2 = .07$, dealing with disruption, $F (1, 35) = 2.86$, $p = .100$, $\eta p2 = .08$, and working alliance, $F (1, 35) = 2.83$, $p = .132$, $\eta p2 = .06$, which indicated a stronger increase in knowledge in the IG than in the CG; medium interaction effects on

the dimensions time management, F (1, 35) = 4.31, p = .045, ηp2 = .11, group mobilization, F (1, 35) = 3.90, p = .056, ηp2 = .10, and clarity of program of action, F (1, 35) = 3.55, p = .068, ηp2 = .09 indicated increased mean knowledge in the IG but decreased mean knowledge in the CG. Only the interaction regarding time management revealed a significant effect (Piwowar et al., 2013).

However, KODEK, which applied all principles of professional learning (i.e. elaborating, expanding, and externalizing) and aligned training to practical experience, had a stronger positive influence on most dimensions of teachers' declarative knowledge. In addition, the researchers found mixed results for the second hypothesis, which related to improvement in competencies. The authors stated there could have been inconsistent findings because observer's rates on teachers' competencies in classroom management on only one sample before and after training. Therefore, only one observation session has an influence on the internal validity of the results. Descriptive statistics showed that IG teachers had higher scores on all tested dimensions of classroom management at post-testing, except for time management, MIG = 4.96, SDIG = .19; MCG = 5.16, SDCG = .20, respectively. In comparison to baseline, all means increased in both groups, except for a decrease in monitoring in the CG, MCG, t1 = 4.36, SDCG, t1 = 1.00; MCG, t2 = 3.96, SDCG, t2 = .28. ANCOVAs revealed no statistically significant differences between groups after training, but there was evidence of medium positive effects regarding monitoring and group mobilization, F (1, 30) = 2.56, p = .120, ηp2 = .08; F (1, 30) = 2.75, p = .108, ηp2 = .08, respectively (Piwowar et al., 2013).

The third hypothesis, which was that students would report improvement of preventive classroom management strategies, corroborates with findings as evident of change in students' behavior. Students' off task behavior showed a decrease when comparing to baseline in both groups. Students in IG classes showed off-task behavior 26% of the time at posttests on average (SDIG = 2.7) as compared to 30% in CG classes (SDCG = 2.8), which is neither statistically significant nor indicative of a sizeable effect, $F (1, 30) = .66$, $p = .422$, $\eta p2 = .02$. Student engagement was higher in IG classes than in CG classes after training, indicating a statistically significant and large positive effect, $F (1, 30) = 15.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta p2 = .34$. Whereas mean student engagement increased in IG, it decreased in CG in comparison to baseline (Piwowar et al., 2013). Moreover, the authors indicated that the fourth hypothesis proved to be appropriate to use in this study and that the hypothesis was successful as evident of the results of the acceptability rating, which was ran after each model of the IG.

Both CG teachers and IG teachers reported an overall favorable view of their training sessions. Ratings on acceptability of the training was ground on an 8-point scales (1[disagree] and 8[agree]) and were higher in the IG than in the CG; highest acceptability refers to the organization of the training (MCG = 6.94, SDCG = .94; MIG = 7.46, SDIG = .36) and trainer competence (MCG = 6.76, SDCG = 1.09; MIG = 7.51, SDIG = .27) in both groups. Training sessions were educational (MCG = 5.83, SDCG = 1.69; MIG = 6.69, SDIG = .69) and personally relevant (MCG = 5.67, SDCG = 1.88; MIG = 6.72, SDIG = .83). Total scores regarding amount of reflection and transferability were medium in both groups (MCG = 4.81, SDCG = 1.09; MIG = 6.13, SDIG = .84, and MCG

= 4.50, SDCG = 1.10; MIG = 5.67, SDIG = 1.09). Descriptive statistics reported by the authors entailed that group means increased as compared to baseline on all dimensions of classroom management in both groups except for a decrease in the control group with teachers' time management. The ANOVAs, conducted by the authors revealed a significant change over time for all participants on the dimension of rules (Piwowar et al., 2013).

Per the authors, limitations included the size of the sample as evident that there was a relatively small sample of secondary school teachers. The small sample could restrict the power of statistical measures. In the working alliance, a test for sustainability of the measured effects or detection of sleeper effects is common (Piwowar et al., 2013). In this study, pre-post-test methodology failed to test for sustainability of the measured effects or to detect sleep effects. Another limitation is handling of conflicts and implementation of rules and procedures (Piwowar et al., 2013).

Also, the authors shared that, internal validity could be a threat due to non-randomization. Next, the authors posited that researchers should use measures that are more sensitive. For example, instead of subjective ratings on knowledge, researchers could use an objective test and multiple observations before and after the training, as well as open-ended classroom observations and case studies, that are evidence supported by qualitative methods that go beyond the assessment of discrete practices. These both could extend the study's view of classroom management and could highlight the contextualization and situated nature more comprehensively. Reportedly, the authors decided against the advantages of measurement to raise attendance and avoid dropout due

to such time-costly requirements. Moreover, the authors reported all the issues together affect the generalizability of the results and take a minimal view on process of change.

The Jóvenes Fuertes program has more similarities than differences in comparison to social-emotional learning and social-emotional resiliency. Therefore, Castro-Olivo (2014) study involved using the Jóvenes Fuertes program with students in grades 6-12. The focus of the study was to help students cope with the acculturation process and with life as an English Language Learner (ELL). Moreover, students also received help coping with the Social Emotional Learning (SEL) program in comparison to the social-emotional outcomes of Latino English Language learners (LELL).

Latino adolescents enrolled in beginning to intermediate English language development (ELD) classes were recruited to participate in this study (n = 102). The researcher selected students as participants from five middle schools and two high schools from three different districts in Southern California. At baseline one, the mean age of participants was 15.3 with a range between 14 and 18 years (M = 13.91; SD = 1.86). Over half of the students (59%) reported to have been born in Mexico or another Latin American country. The remainder (41%) reported being born in the United States but had been living at least three years outside of the United States (M = 8.9; SD = 7.3). All students reported that Spanish was their dominant language. Of the participants, 75% were in middle school, and 25% were in high school. Thirty-one percent of the participants had lived in the United States one year or less; 20% three years or less, and the remainder (48%) three or more years (M = 38.84 months; SD = 44.01). In addition, 50% of the participants identified as female and 49% as male, although one participant

chose not to report his or her gender. Ninety-four percent of the participants reported to be receiving a free or reduced-cost lunch at the time of the intervention. Of the participants, 49% were in classrooms that the researcher randomly assigned to the intervention. The classroom was the sampling unit, not the individual students.

Castro-Olivo's (2014) research questions were:

- To what extent do students who participate in the culturally adapted Jóvenes Fuertes SEL program report higher levels of SEL knowledge and SEL resiliency in comparison to those in the wait list control group at post-intervention assessments?
- To what extent do participants perceive the culturally adapted Jóvenes Fuertes SEL program as a socially valid intervention?

The researcher used a quasi-experimental intervention/control pre-post research design and a repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) to identify the intervention effects is the chosen design. The researcher used descriptive statistics and frequencies to determine social acceptability/validity. The researcher's results showed that the program was effective in improving students' social-emotional resiliency and knowledge of SEL. Students also reported high levels of social validity.

- I liked the program 93.5% (M = 5.09, SD = 1.03)
- I found the skills useful 86.9% (M = 4.89, SD = 1.25)
- I am likely to use the skills that were taught 84.4% (M = 4.80, SD =1.20)
- I would recommend this program to others 86.7% (M = 5.04, SD = 1.17)
- I liked the way this class was taught 84.4% (M = 5.02, SD = 1.16)

- This program has taught important skills to my peers 95.4% (M = 5.36, SD = 0.97)
- I have noticed a change in my, and my peers,' behavior since we started this program 96.2% (M = 5.23, SD = 0.86)
- I feel the skills taught in this program have taught me how to do better in my school- work 92.3% (M = 4.81, SD = 1.13)

This program targeted students like me (Latinos) 88.5% (M = 4.96, SD = 1.28).

Castro-Olive (2014) posited that students in the intervention group reported significantly higher levels of SEL knowledge, F (1, 81) 28.93, p = .00 and resiliency, F (1, 68) 5.828, p = .02. Cohen's d was calculated for both variables, with 1.27 obtained for knowledge (r = .53) and .44 for resiliency (r = .21).

Limitations of the study included that Castro-Olivo (2014) did not measure any problem behavior, including acculturative stress, to assess the effectiveness of the intervention on decreasing problem behaviors or symptoms of internalizing problems. The study did not generalize to the public therefore decreasing both internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors with mainstream samples. This study is important to my originally intended study in that the authors' research helps to identify areas to teach students ways to cope with daily challenges when they identify as different, (i.e., disabled, mental diagnosis, learning disability). Given that Castro-Olivo used a simple pre-post design, the time the researcher needed to accurately assess the intervention's effect on students' acculturative stress was needed information, but it was not provided by Castro-Olivo.

Teacher Referral Practice

Suspension rates have shown an increase over the past three decades and across all grade levels in the United States (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Carr (2010) found that principals were suspending students for inappropriate behavior even when students were honor students. Administrators were choosing suspension rather than a milder punishment for disruption, and that African American students were more likely to be suspended than their White peers (Carr, 2010; Drelilinger, 2015). In the United States, one in five African American males received out of-school suspensions during the 2009-10 academic year in comparison to one in 14 White males (Carr, 2010). In Louisiana, African American students compose 63% of those students suspended and 68% of those expelled (Drelilinger, 2015).

Students who are suspended and sent home, are not being taught about their misbehavior, and are not able to return to school (Drelilinger, 2015; Losen, 2009). Moreover, in a report by Families and Friends of Louisiana Incarcerated Children and the National Economic Rights and Social Rights Initiative interview, McDaniel (2009), indicated that there was a certain point when suspensions benefited everyone, except for the suspended students. Therefore, suspensions rates continue to rise in all grade levels in the United States and continue to be of chief concern, particularly in the state of Louisiana (Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a; Dreilinger, 2015; Sentell, 2015; Talamo, 2017).

In a report published by Counselor Referrals (2012), instances were outlined when students should be referred to the school counselor. However, Losen (2009) stated

that students encountered problems such as a lack of supervision in the home setting, a lack of education concerning misbehavior, and not being taught how to return to school, thus these students were found to continue to exhibit disruptive behaviors upon their return. Student referrals sometimes were placed in the hands of some school administrators as evident of suspensions, rather than a milder form of punishment for disruptive behaviors shown by student in the classroom (Bryan et al., 2012; Carr, 2010; Sentell, 2015).

Teacher referral practice entails teachers collecting information about student behavior on an on-going basis to meet reporting requirements (Tidwell, Flannery, Brigid, & Lewis-Palmer, 2003; U.S. Department of Education, 2014). Student office disciplinary referrals (ODRs) have been linked to a myriad of negative outcomes including lost class time (Fenning & Rose, 2007; Talamo, 2017), exclusionary disciplinary consequences (Sentell, 2015; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2002), negative academic outcomes (Skiba & Rausch, 2006), and contact with the juvenile justice system (Talamo, 2017; Wald & Losen, 2003). Researchers have documented that certain groups were automatically known to receive referrals, placing these groups at a disproportionate risk for negative outcomes (Drelilinger, 2015; Talamo, 2017).

Teachers receive in-service training by school counselors to learn new ways to handle disruptive behaviors shown by students in their classrooms (Warren, 2013). However, there are behaviors shown by students that warrants teacher referral of students to the school counselor. Teachers should refer students to the school counselor when students require individual help and/or privacy outside the class setting (Counselor

Referrals, 2012). However, teachers should not refer students to the school counselor when the teacher can calm the student in a reasonable amount of time (Counselor Referrals, 2012).

Pas, Bradshaw, and Mitchell (2011) examined the concordance of office discipline referral (ODR) with teacher ratings of student behavior using data from 21 elementary schools. The researchers obtained their data from two sources, the School-wide Information System (SWIS), which is a commonly used Internet-based system, and from teacher self-report. Pas et al. collected the data at the end of a single school year from teachers via a survey packet. The authors reported that data for the study came from a sample of 8,645 children nested within 335 general education classrooms (K-5) at 21 elementary schools. A total of 9,397 students were enrolled in the schools at the time of data collection. The researchers received data for 95.3 % of students (n = 8,951); which included completed data for 8,737 students (97% of students for which data were submitted). The researchers excluded 92 students who were in special education classroom from the analysis. Education teachers, all general status, participated in the study. Information regarding demographic characteristics of the participating students were (n = 8, 645), teachers/classrooms (n = 335), and schools (n = 21).

The researchers used a variety of analyses (e.g., correlations, multivariate analysis of variance, and receiver operating characteristics). The authors posited that the correlational data suggested that ODRs were more highly comparable to disruptive behavior than with concentration problems or prosocial behavior. Pas et al. (2011) stated that the results for the ODRs were moderately valid and reliable. Therefore, in this study,

the authors reported ODRs had moderate concordance with teacher ratings of student problem behaviors and divergence from prosocial behaviors. Similarly, multilevel analyses revealed that teacher ratings of disruptive behaviors were significantly comparable with ODRs, even after controlling for other student, classroom, and school-level factors. These findings suggested that ODRs are moderately valid indicators of student behavioral problems and may be an efficient source of information for use in school-based research and databased decision-making. This study is important to my originally proposed study in that, even though the researchers used ODRs in their study, the authors found that ODRs were more highly associated with disruptive behavior.

My original intent for my study was that I would center my study on instructing teachers how to handle disruptive behaviors shown by students in their classroom. As noted, my study changed to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

Exclusionary Discipline

Exclusionary discipline describes suspension, expulsion, and other disciplinary actions leading to a student's removal from the typical educational setting (Vanacore, 2016; Noltelmeyer & McLoughlin, 2010). Moreover, the most common exclusionary discipline practices at schools include suspension and expulsion. Negative outcomes result from exclusionary discipline, yet it is still used continuously by schools (Noltemeyer & McLoughlin, 2010). Suspension and expulsion in Louisiana have reached

epidemic proportions and has been a growing concern of both State officials and citizens alike (Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a; Drelilinger, 2015; Sentell, 2015; Talamo, 2017).

McLoughlin and Noltemeyer's (2010) conducted a quantitative study to investigate variables that related to exclusionary discipline and student ethnicity. The purpose of these authors' study was to investigate how school typology and student ethnicity related to exclusionary discipline. The covariate for all analyses was the proportion of economically disadvantaged students in the district. McLoughlin and Noltemeyer (2010) proposed research questions that related to race and poverty. The researchers used archival data that they collected statewide from the 2007-2008 school year to explore their research questions:

- Do significant differences exist in rates of exclusionary discipline between White and African American students when controlling for poverty?
- Do significant differences exist in rates of exclusionary discipline between six school typologies when controlling for poverty?
- Is there an interaction between ethnicity and school typology when controlling for poverty?

McLoughlin and Noltemeyer (2010) obtained district identification numbers for all major urban, excessively low-income schools in the state of Ohio using the school typology database. Using Ohio's Department of Education Power Users Tool, the researchers compiled a spreadsheet of discipline incidents per 100 students during the 2007-2008 school year, which was separated into component parts by school district,

race, school typology, and discipline type such as suspensions, expulsions, and 'other' disciplinary actions and data on predictor variables (school typology urban, rural and suburban and student ethnicity) were obtained. The "tool" allows access to all public schools in Ohio. The researchers then integrated the data into the existing SPSS database. Both school typology and disciplinary data were available for 595 school districts; however, only 326 districts participated in the final sample due to an insufficient sample of either White or African American students for the remaining school districts. The final sample for this study included 433 schools from 12 major urban, high poverty school districts during the 2007-2008 school year (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010). The predictor variables chosen were:

- The percentage of African American teachers in the school.
- Total suspensions per 100 students.
- The percentage of economically disadvantaged students at the school.
- The percentage of African American students attending the school.
- The instructional expenditures per student.
- The suspension per 100 White students.
- The suspensions per 100 African American students.
- The office disciplinary referrals per 100 students.

McLoughlin and Noltemeyer (2010) conducted a multiple regression analysis to answer the research questions. The researchers also used a MANCOVA and univariate ANCOVAS to examine the effects of ethnicity and school typology on exclusionary discipline roles. Overall, school typology accounted for 4.0% of the variability in

exclusionary discipline. Pairwise comparisons revealed that the mean number of expulsions per 100 students for school typology Five (‘Major Urban— Very-high-poverty’ (M = 1.058) was significantly greater than that for every other school typology. In addition, the mean number of expulsions for school typologies six (Urban/Suburban—High median income (M = .430) and seven (Urban/Suburban—Very high median income, very low poverty (M = .411) was significantly greater than that for school typology 2 (Rural/agricultural (M = .060). Regarding suspensions, the mean was again significantly greater for school typology 5 (M = 28.769) than each of the other typologies. The mean is also significantly greater in typology 6 (M = 17.835) than in typologies 1 (M = 10.911), 2 (M = 8.734), and 4 (M = 13.604) and greater in typologies 3 (M = 14.389), 4 (M = 13.604), and 7 (M = 14.424) than in typology 2 (M = 8.734). Finally, the mean number of other disciplinary actions per 100 students is significantly greater for typologies 5 (M = 30.410) and 6 (M = 21.115) than typologies 1 (M = 10.809), 2 (M = 8.796), 3 (M = 12.099), 4 (M = 14.084), and 7 (M = 15.091; McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010).

McLoughlin and Noltemeyer (2010) found during their research that African American students received five times more out-of-school suspensions than White students at suburban schools and that more Hispanics than Whites were expelled. The authors posited that the findings related to disciplinary disproportionality is the percentage of economically disadvantage students in the school. Overall, school typology accounted for 4.0% of the variability in exclusionary discipline. Pairwise comparisons revealed that the mean number of expulsions per 100 students for school typology; Five

('Major Urban— Very-high-poverty' (M = 1.058) was significantly greater than that for every other school typology. In addition, the mean number of expulsions for school typologies six (Urban or Suburban— High median income; M = .430) and seven (Urban or Suburban—Very high median income, very low poverty (M = .411) was significantly greater than that for school typology 2 (Rural and agricultural; M = .060). Regarding suspensions, the mean was again significantly greater for school typology 5 (M = 28.769) than for each of the other typologies. It is also significantly greater in typology 6 (M = 17.835) than in typologies 1 (M = 10.911), 2 (M = 8.734), and 4 (M = 13.604) and greater in typologies 3 (M = 14.389), 4 (M = 13.604), and 7 (M = 14.424) than in typology 2 (M = 8.734). Finally, the mean number of other disciplinary actions per 100 students was significantly greater for typologies 5 (M = 30.410) and 6 (M = 21.115) than typologies 1 (M = 10.809), 2 (M = 8.796), 3 (M = 12.099), 4 (M = 14.084), and 7 (M = 15.091).

A MANCOVA also revealed significant differences in the use of exclusionary discipline in comparison to ethnicity. The researchers also deemed these differences were also significant for suspensions, expulsions, and other disciplinary actions. Specifically, the average rate of each of these forms of exclusionary discipline was double-to-triple the rate for African American students as it is for White students (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010).

In comparison to the mean number of disciplinary actions among African American and White students, suspensions per 100 students were (22,571) whereas White suspension per 100 students were (8,477). Expulsions per 100 students of African

American students (0.539) compared to White students (0.205). Other disciplinary actions per 100 African American students reported were (23.005) as compared to White students (9.110) (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010).

The researchers found that ethnicity accounted for 16.6% of the variability in disciplinary actions. Per the authors, additional mechanisms contributed to disproportionality that include bias, cultural incongruence or cross-cultural miscommunication between teachers and students, and student perceptions of unfairness in discipline. Overall results indicated there was an interaction between school typology and ethnicity with disciplinary disproportionality rates differing by school typology. Specifically, disproportionality was most noticeable in major urban, very high-poverty school districts across all three disciplinary types. It was least noticeable in rural/agricultural schools with small student populations and low poverty; in fact, there were more expulsions per 100 White students than there were per 100 African American students in these latter schools' types (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010).

Limitations in the study were that the researchers obtained data from a single Midwestern state in the USA and with only major urban, remarkably high poverty schools (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010). Another limitation of the study is that the researchers used secondary data without knowing the degree of accuracy of the data. Although specific definitions for each type of disciplinary action existed, there were likely inconsistencies across districts in the application of such action. Also, because of the diversity of variables that comprised the school typology distinction (e.g., school size, population density, income, geographic locale), the relative contribution of each of these

variables to the results is so far unknown. Per the authors, the data was reported at the school district level rather than the student level, precluding the inclusion of additional variables (e.g., gender, student grade level) and the use of more sophisticated analysis techniques. The authors did not identify who reported the data (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010). A failure to meet all the statistical assumptions of MANCOVA is also potentially limiting (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010). However, the researchers chose a more robust test and a more stringent criterion for significance to minimize the impact of these violations. Also, as indicated by the researchers, they eliminated many schools from the study due to an insufficient population of African American Students or to an insufficient number of suspensions (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010).

It is important to remember that the researcher's disproportionality examined the African American student population. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to other populations (e.g., Latino students). Another limitation was that it is unknown the degree to which suspension was given and if documentation is consistent between schools. Furthermore, office referrals of students resulted in consequences that included the loss of instruction time and possibly suspension from the class setting (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010).

This study related to my originally proposed study in that most instructional time lost to exclusionary discipline was due to the high poverty school districts chosen to participate in the study. Therefore, as indicated by the authors, there is a need for alternative disciplinary practices to be taken under consideration. Moreover, per Louisiana census data, Louisiana's estimate of poverty has increased by almost two

percent and Louisiana ranks 49th in the nation as one of the poorest states (National Center for Children in Poverty, 2013). The schools where I originally chose to conduct my study were also located in a very high-poverty area. Furthermore, McLoughlin and Noltemeyer (2010) also exclaimed that exclusionary discipline occurs most frequently in major-urban, very high-poverty schools. In addition, in the state of Louisiana, African American student suspensions and expulsion rates remain higher than that of their White counterparts (Drelilinger, 2015).

Bryan, Day-Vines, Griffin and Moore-Thomas (2012) identified gender and race as the contributing factors when teachers made referrals to the school counselor for disruptive behavior. Bryan et al. (2012) indicated that previous disciplinary actions predicts teacher referrals and counselors use them to suggest to the school principal suspensions or expulsions. Suspension or expulsions were the choices of the principals of the schools and can last up to 10 school days (Drelilinger, 2015). In the Bryan et al. (2012) study, participants were 4,067 tenth graders in English class and 4,981 tenth graders in math class. Demographically, fifty percent of students live in a suburban area, 25% in the rural, and 25% urban. The dependent variable were teachers' referrals to the school counselor for disruptive behavior while the independent variables were students' gender, race, ethnicity, social economic status, math and reading achievement, and how far teachers expect students' disruptive behaviors to escalate in the class/school setting. Teacher demographic variables were race, ethnicity, and teachers' gender (male/female). Other demographic variables included students' previous behaviors and disciplinary infractions.

Bryan et al. (2012) obtained secondary data through a national longitudinal data set from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), following a cohort of 10th grade-students biennially beginning 2002 to answer the question: Who are English teachers more likely to refer to the counselor for disruptive behavior? The authors reported the following: females have 65% lower odds (OR = 0.35) of getting a referral than did males; and, inversely, males had almost three times higher odds (OR = 1.0/0.35 = 2.86) of a referral from teachers in English classes than did females. In English classes, Black students had 71% greater odds (OR = 1.71) of a referral than did White students. When considering race and gender, the researchers found that Black females had more than double the odds (OR = 2.24) and multiracial females have three times greater odds (OR = 3.22) of a referral for disruptive behavior in English classes. In English classes, there were no significant interaction between teachers' race and gender. For math classes, females had 49% lower odds (OR = 0.51) of a referral than did males. Inversely, males have twice the odds (OR = 1.0/0.51 = 1.96) of a referral in math classes. There was no significant interaction between students' race and gender in math classes, and neither was there a significant interaction between teachers' race and gender in math classes (Bryan et al., 2012).

The next question the researchers asked were whether teachers were referring students who were generally at risk for disciplinary action and suspension to the school counselor? In English classes, students' previous at-risk behaviors and disciplinary infractions were found to be positive predictors of teacher referrals to the school counselor for disruptive behavior. In English classes, the more frequently students

reported getting in trouble (OR = 1.70) or receiving in-school suspension (OR = 1.55), the greater the odds they had of a referral to the school counselor for disruptive behavior. Similarly, in math classes, previous at-risk behaviors and disciplinary infractions increased students' odds of teachers referring them to the school counselor for disruptive behavior. The more frequently the students report getting in trouble (OR = 1.45) or being late (OR = 1.22), the more likely they were to be referred for disruptive behavior.

Another question the researchers asked was: Do teachers' PSE of students predict their referrals to the school counselor? English teacher PSE of students had an inverse relationship to teacher referrals. Higher teacher expectations resulted in 31% (OR = 0.69) lower odds of English students being referred for disruptive behavior. Similarly, math teachers' PSE had an inverse relationship to teacher referrals to the school counselor for disruptive behavior. As math teacher expectations increase, the odds of them referring math students to the school counselor were reduced by 42% (OR = 0.58) (Bryan et al., 2010).

Results of the study suggested that English and math teachers differed in who they referred to the school counselor for disruptive behavior as shown below:

Females had 65% lower odds (OR = 0.35) of being referred than did males. Inversely, males had almost three times higher odds (OR = 1.0/0.35 = 2.86) of being referred in English classes than did females.

In English classes, Black students had 71% greater odds (OR = 1.71) of a referral than did White students. Furthermore, there was a significant interaction between students' race and gender in English classes.

When considering race and gender, the authors found that Black females had more than double the odds (OR = 2.24) and multiracial females had three times greater odds (OR = 3.22) of a referral for disruptive behavior in English classes. Moreover, students' race appeared to be a significant predictor of referrals in English teachers' classrooms, but not in math teachers' classrooms. Significance was found for Black females ($\beta = .81$) and multiracial females ($\beta = 1.17$) at an alpha of .01(Bryan et al., 2012).

Limitations to the Bryan et al. (2012) study was that although extensive, secondary data was available to the researchers that included data included limited constructs as defined by NCES. Another limitation was that no other disciplinary referrals were collected within the year, therefore a cross sectional analysis is chosen for use (Bryan et al., 2012).

Teacher In-Service Training

Teacher training refers to the policies and procedures to prepare teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school, and wider community (Afridi, Alija, & Raza, 2013). In-service training equips teachers with solutions to the challenges of students in the classroom setting. It aims at improving quality of teachers by ensuring Continuous Teacher Professional Development for individual teachers and establishing collegiality for groups of teachers. School-based INSET (SBI) and Cluster-based INSET (CBI) are the main activities taught at the school level, which enables teachers to improve their professional competency of knowledge, skills, and attitude (Ghana Education Services, 2010).

Researchers have posited that teacher training is a key factor for student success and achievement (Rand, 2012). For example, Gibbs and Coffey (2004) conducted a quantitative experimental design regarding the effectiveness of university teacher training on teacher's instructional skills, the approach teachers take to facilitating student learning, and the approach students take to facilitating their own learning. Twenty-two universities from eight countries were chosen to participate in this study. The researchers conducted a substantial pilot study involving in-house/in-service training programs for university teachers in ten universities in England.

Each university had a training program ranging from 60 hours to 300 hours that consisted of a series of meetings and learning activities that extended between four to eighteen months. Educators with varying degrees of teaching participated in the study and included post- graduate teaching assistants, beginning teachers, and teachers with experience. The original intent of the researchers was to have 20 trainee teachers from each of the 20 universities (i.e. 400 trainee teachers) in addition to obtaining data from 20 students. However, recruitment was low, due to one university being excluded based on "trainee" teachers' experience. One year after the training, the researchers also reported dropouts from the program (104; Gibbs & Coffee, 2004, p. 92) . In the article, the authors did not report additional demographics.

A control group included new teachers from two universities where there was no training or support for the new teachers. Pre-and post-assessment occurred for both the experimental and the control group. The participants in this control group, and their students, completed questionnaires in the same way as the training group (i.e., near to the

start of the first year of teaching and then again one year later). Per the authors, they had difficulty identifying universities that could provide a control group and gain and retain commitment to participate in the study. The control group was therefore small, with the number of teachers equivalent to two of the 20 training programs participating in the study.

The authors did a comparison to ascertain that there were no significant differences (n.s.) between the two groups at the onset of the study. The authors determined that the control group did not significantly differ from the training group in their Focus scores or Student Focus scores at the start of training ($t = 0.57$ and $t = 1.58$; Gibbs & Coffey, 2004). The researchers also took caution to ensure that the students of the teachers in the control group were not different from those of the teachers in the training group. The approach to study of the students taught by teachers in the training and control groups did not differ at the outset (Deep Approach: $t = 0.24$; Surface Approach: $t = 1.72$, n.s. in each case (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004). The researchers also reported that teachers in the experimental group were using a student focus rather than a teacher focus, whereas, teachers in the control group continued with a teacher focus.

During this study, the researchers used three different questionnaires: one for teachers and two for the students. The three measures included student ratings on their teachers using six scales from the Student Evaluation of Education Quality questionnaire (SEEQ) to identify the following skills:

- Enthusiasm: The teacher was enthusiastic about teaching the course.
- Organization: The teacher's explanations were clear.

- Group Interaction: Students were invited to share their ideas and knowledge.
- Rapport: The teacher had a genuine interest in individual students.
- Breadth: The teacher contrasted the implications of various theories.
- Student Learning: The students felt they learned something important.

The second scale the researchers administered to the students was the Module Experience Questionnaire (MEQ). This scale measures:

- Surface Approach: How much does a student rely on memorization to learn?
- Deep Approach: How much effort does a student put in to studying and learning rather than over mere memorization?
- Good Teaching: How clear were the teacher's instructions and lectures?
- The third questionnaire the researchers administered was the Approaches Teaching Inventory (ATI) to teachers. This scale measures:
- Teacher Focus: How much does the teacher focus on the presentation of facts to students as the primary source for student learning?
- Student Focus: How much does the teacher focus on examples and student discussion as the primary source for student learning?

Gibbs and Coffey (2004) found that there was a range of positive change in the training group as compared to the control group.

In the experimental group, the authors posited that teachers would report more student focus as evident of group scores increasing for all five skill sets. However, no differences were found in either the Teacher Focus or Student Focus scores. With the maximum score on each scale being 40, the findings indicated ($t = - 0.78, -1.70$). In fact,

the skill set of group interaction for teachers in the control group diminished between pre- and post-assessment. The score for good teaching increased for teachers in the experimental group ($t = 3.21$, $p < 01$), but not for teachers in the control group ($t = 0.09$, not significant (n.s). Results for students indicated that students whose teachers were in the experimental group had significant gains in student learning and relied less on memorization as a method of learning as compared to students whose teachers were in the control group (Deep Approach: $t = 0.19$; Surface Approach: $t = 0.70$, n.s. in each case). Therefore, this study supported that training teachers can lead to an increase in learning, better quality of learning, and an improvement in educational outcomes for students. A limitation of the study was that there was insufficient data to compare with the impacts of accredited and unaccredited programs.

This study was important to my originally intended study in that the teacher's approach to learning of their students enhances a student focus. Additional training using evidenced-based tools can contribute to higher learning, a decrease in student behavioral disturbances, and the opportunity for teachers to teach per curriculum (Vernez et al., 2012). Even though REBT is the model I originally chose to use in my study, this study supports my intended goal, which was to provide training to teachers so that teachers learn to handle disruptive behaviors in the class setting and thus decrease referrals to the counselor's office. When given the opportunity to remain in the classroom environment, there is a possibility that students could improve their academics. This study influenced my original plan for my study because the study could have encouraged on-going staff development to principals, teachers, and school committee members.

Jamil, Atta, Ali, Baloch, and Ayaz (2011) conducted a study to determine the association, and effects of in-service training on performance of secondary school teachers. The researchers used a survey design for assessment of the effectiveness of in-service training in improving the performance of teachers working in secondary schools. Jamil et al. (2011) randomly chose nine secondary schools for the collection of data and selected a sample of 73 teachers for this study. The authors did not identify any research questions or hypotheses. Per the authors, they used a three- point Likert scale for measurement; however, the researchers did not name the scale. The researchers used the SPSS version 12 for the statistical analysis of the data. Details of teacher observation for their post in-service performance was:

Gender: Male 41(56.16%), Trained 12 (29.26%), Untrained 20 (70.73%)

Female: 32 (43.83%), Trained 09 (28.12%), Untrained 23(71.87%).

Correlation among training and performance of teachers:

Aspect	Approbated
Expertise in the subject matter	25.2%
Equipped with latest knowledge	28.1%
Improved interaction with the students	50.1%
Conducive teaching method (create programs not only to improve the qualifications with added value bearing attractive contents and syllabus but include non-academic matters that help both educators and students to make it possible for something to happen) (Findley & Varble (2006).	52.4%
Better source of information	15.8%

Gained confidence	55.8%
Good humanism	19.5%
Maintenance of discipline in the class	64.3%
Working as accommodative facilitator	32.0%
Feedback from the students	61.6%

Study results indicated that in-service training equipped teachers with more effective means of getting feedback by students, which in turn improved students' achievement. Moreover, Jamil et al. (2011) added that training helped teachers improve their teaching methods and interactions with students to include helping teachers maintain better discipline in the classroom. Jamil et al. concluded that although the results were not very impressive, there was some positive effects of in-service training on the performance of teachers and that the intensity of effectiveness varied from aspect to aspect. Interestingly, the researchers reported that training did not improve the performance of secondary teachers in terms of their expertise in the subject matter. Jamil et al. also concluded that in-service training did not help teachers to adequately facilitate the students. However, the researchers did find the effects of in-service training on the organizational or administrative side of the teachers' performance to be positive, in that training adds to the confidence of the teachers, which in turn helped them to maintain better discipline in the class. The Jamil et al. study relates to my originally intended study in that in-service training was found to equip teachers with more effective means of getting feedback to the students that ultimately related to the removal of errors and improvement of students' achievements.

Another area of importance for student success is the teacher's attitude. Savolainen, Egelbrecht, Nel, and Malinen (2012) used a quantitative, sequential mixed-methods research design that focused on a cross-sectional analysis of teachers in South Africa and Finland. The focus of their study was on the implications for pre-service and in-service teacher education within different countries. The researchers used a questionnaire to collect their data. Participants were 319 South African and 822 Finnish primary and secondary education teachers. The teachers completed a questionnaire containing a scale that measured sentiments, attitudes, and concerns on inclusive education as well as a scale measuring teachers' self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices (Savolainen et al., 2012).

The research questions were:

- Are there any differences between Finnish and South African teachers in their profiles of attitudes towards inclusive education?
- Are there any differences between Finnish and South African teachers in their profiles of self-efficacy for inclusive practices?
- Does self-efficacy for inclusive practices correlate with attitudes towards inclusive education?
- What type of self-efficacy is the best predictor of attitudes towards inclusive education?

Savolainen et al. (2012) used surveys for their data collection. To test the 22 mainstream teachers, it was necessary for the researchers to translate the questionnaire in Afrikaans due to the teachers were either Afrikaans or English speaking. The researchers

then had the questionnaire hand-delivered to schools, and at district cluster meetings, asking the participants to complete and returned. Of the 500 questionnaires given, the researchers only accounted for 322.

Savolainen et al. (2012) collected the Finnish data from six small to medium-size municipalities in the Eastern Finland region and from one big municipality in the Southwest region. The context of the South African sample was drawn from the Vaal Triangle area (an industrial area where people migrated from all over the country to find work), that consisted of parts of the Gauteng Province as well as the Free State Province. The researchers used a convenience sampling with special emphasis on the objective that schools from different socioeconomic and cultural contexts take part would be included in the study. The researchers invited primary and secondary mainstream schools with a diversity of learners to participate. Four research questions were proposed:

- Are there any differences between Finnish and South African teachers in their profiles of attitudes toward inclusive education?
- Are there any differences between Finnish and South African teachers in their profiles of self-efficacy for inclusive practices?
- Does self-efficacy for inclusive practices correlate with attitude towards inclusive education?
- Which type of self-efficacy is the best predictor of attitudes towards inclusive education?

The researchers piloted their questionnaires with 20 teachers. The Eastern Finland questionnaires (n = 295) and the southwestern city data (n = 560) were collected by the

local education authority from all schools that agreed to participate. Moreover, the exact return rate of questionnaires (total n = 855) were not received but was estimated by the researchers to be around 60%. The similarities that the researchers identified were gender distribution (Finland = 78.3) and (South-Africa = 82.1), and average number of years of service as a teacher (Finland 16.98 + or – 9.41) and (South-Africa 19.18 + or = 10.81) (Savolainen et al., 2012). However, the researchers found a big difference in the level of professional degrees of teachers between the two countries

Finland	
Master's degree	82.4
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	14.9
Teacher diploma	2.3
Secondary school or equivalent	0.3
South-Africa	
Master's degree	2.4
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	35.9
Teacher diploma	58.5
Secondary school or equivalent	3.1

The comparative analysis was that the overall sentiments towards disabilities were positive in both countries; however, teachers had many concerns about the consequences of including children with disabilities in their classrooms. Overall sentiments toward disabilities were positive for South African primary and secondary education teachers. In addition, South African teachers were confident in managing disruptive behavior

exhibited by students. South African teachers were confident in managing disruptive behavior, but the results for the Finnish teachers indicated that managing disruptive behaviors was their weakest point (Savolainen et al., 2012). This study informs my original study in that information from this study may contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the role of teachers in implementing inclusive practices in the classroom and the need for teacher education programs, to address diverse needs of students from various cultures.

De Vries Van de Grift, and Jansen (2013) stated that it is imperative that teachers continue professional development (CPD) and understand that their beliefs influence their instructional decisions. Therefore, de Vries et al. (2013) conducted a study to explore the link between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning and teachers' participation in continuing professional development (CPD). The school administrators showed interest in the research and agreed to participate, because the school administrators hoped to use the results of the study to bring the schools' staff policy up to date (de Vries et al., 2013).

de Vries et al. (2013) sent a survey via e-mail to recipients, with another e-mail that explained the researchers' goals and procedures of the study. This information included a link to an electronic questionnaire to all 1,050 potential participants. Out of the 1,050 potential participants, 260 agreed to participate with the collection of survey data. The sample consisted of 260 teachers who were working at four secondary schools with connections to the School of Education in the northern part of the Netherlands. The distribution of male and female respondents was 49 and 51 percent. The average age was 46.7 and the average number of years of experience was 18.8. Thirty percent of the

teachers were fully qualified, 48 percent had qualification to teach the first classes of secondary education, nine percent had qualification for primary education, seven percent as student teachers, and six percent were not qualified.

The research questions were as follows:

- How do teachers describe their beliefs about learning and teaching and their participation in the three CPD activities?
- What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and teachers' CPD activities?
- Do the three CPD activities reflect teachers' actual participation in CPD?
- What is the relationship between the two types of beliefs and teachers' participation in CPD?

This study featured two belief dimensions (student and subject matter orientation) and three types of CPD activities (updating, reflective, and collaborative). de Vries et al. (2013) analyzed the data to gain insight into how teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching related to their participation in CPD. First, the researchers used a t-test to assess teachers' beliefs and their participation in the CPD activities. They then used a correlational analysis to test the relationship between beliefs and participation. They also chose a structural equation model, which entails the relationship between the two types of beliefs (exogenous variables) and CPD construct (endogenous variable), to address the third and fourth research questions.

As posited by the authors, there was a moderate correlation between student-orientated beliefs and subject-matter- oriented beliefs ($r = 0.28$). The authors also found that updating activities correlates significantly with both reflective activities ($r = 0.35$)

and collaborative activities (r = 0.34). There was an indication of a possible underlying construct of participation in CPD (r = 0.50). Therefore, the researchers standardized all the scale scores for the analysis. Overall, the authors provided the mean scores and standard deviations for the two belief scales and three CPD scales.

de Vries et al. (2010) found a moderate correlation between students-oriented beliefs and subject matter. Intercorrelations among all the model variables indicated equally strong student-oriented beliefs (M = 0.86) and subject-matter-oriented beliefs (M = 0.86). On average, teachers endorsed both beliefs approximately equally. In their CPD activities, teachers participated significantly more in updating activities (M = 0.68) and in collaborative activities (M = 0.66) than in reflective activities (M = 0.58; t =14.06, $p < 0.001$ and t = 12.84, $p < 0.001$, r = 0.63, respectively). Although the effect was small, they also participated significantly more frequently in updating activities than in collaborative activities (t = 2.17, $p < 0.05$, r = 0.14). The implications of this study are the need for schools to emphasize a student orientation among their teachers to intensify teachers' participation in continuing professional development to enhance teacher quality and teacher practices.

The authors included limitations for their study that suggested directions for research. Therefore, the identified limitation included the model chosen (de Vries et al., 2010). Even though the authors alluded that the chosen model was acceptable for their early explorative study of teachers' beliefs, and participation n CPD activities, an extension of the chosen model could address the main objective of participation in CPD. The authors reported a limitation in the use of a cross -sectional study in that they

collected all the data at one point in time. Lavrakas and Hall (2008) posited that a cross-sectional survey presented as a limitation in that cross-sectional surveys is just a snapshot of the population about which data is gathered. Therefore, researchers may repeat this type of survey periodically; however, in a repeated cross-sectional survey, researchers intentionally do not choose the same respondents that responded previously.

However, researchers could hypothetically randomly select a respondent that completed one administration of the survey for a subsequent one. To address this limitation, the authors posited a longitudinal assessment of the proposed model, or an extended version of it, in that the longitudinal assessment might reveal causal relationships between student orientations and teachers' participation in CPD. In other words, cross-sectional studies chosen were used to investigate associations between risk factors and the outcome of interest but are limited by the fact that no indication of the sequence of events, whether exposure occurred before, during, or after the onset of the outcome. Therefore, it is impossible to infer causality (Levin, 2006).

As noted by the authors, another methodological issue regarding the use of self-reports by teachers to measure their beliefs and participation in CPD, is that those beliefs and practices have a complex relationship and may not always be congruent. A third methodological issue arose because the researchers collected the data from limited number of schools in just one country even though the sample was representative of the Dutch setting. Azham and Yusof (2011) explained that for researchers to generalize the findings, they cannot properly make inferences beyond the population that is sampled. In addition, researchers should use caution in generalizing the results beyond the cases they

study. The de Vries et al. (2013) study is relevant to my originally planned study in that continuing professional development may improve teacher quality and teaching practices. This study informs my original intent for my study in that a continuation of professional development may prove essential in helping to decrease disruptive behaviors in the class setting.

Similarly, Lai (2010) conducted a qualitative investigation on views of mentors and views on mentoring in-service teachers and university teachers by the University of Hong Kong (Lai, 2010). Per Lai (2010), participants in the study were 10 mentees who were in-service teachers that were undertaking initial teacher training in the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Primary; PGDEP). Lai described the PGDEP as a two-year part-time initial teacher education program that involves university graduates that are full-time teachers in primary schools, but who are not certified teachers. In the study, Lai chose10 mentors with experience as schoolteachers as mentors for the 10 in-service teachers; and three university teachers who delivered courses in the PGDEP program. The university teachers' role in the study entailed emphasizing the importance of addressing learning needs of beginning teachers. The 10-mentee-mentor pairs were from eight different primary schools in Hong Kong, with reports of mentee-mentor pairs 8, 9, and10 being from the same primary school.

Lai (2010) conducted in-depth individual interviews to explore the views of mentoring with five themes: mentor selection and preparation, mentor roles and responsibilities, mentor-mentee relationships, the mentoring program, and school-university relationships. Lai's research questions were:

Mentor background information questions:

- How did you become a mentor for this mentoring scheme? (Volunteered, was appointed).
- How many years of mentoring experience do you have? Have you mentored beginning teachers before? If yes, please briefly describe your experience.

Questions related to mentor roles and responsibilities:

- As a mentor in this mentoring scheme, what do you think are your responsibilities?
- Please look at these cards which contain a list of mentor responsibilities:
- Which ones best describe your current responsibilities in mentoring?
- Which ones best describe your conception of the most ideal mentor responsibilities?

Mentor-mentee relationship questions:

- What kinds of mentoring activities did you undertake?
- How often did you observe your mentee's lessons, and conduct pre- and post-lesson discussions with your mentee?
- Which ones best describe your conception of the most ideal mentor–mentee relationships?

Mentoring program questions:

- What kinds of mentoring activities did you undertake?
- How often did you observe your mentee's lessons, and conduct pre- and post-lesson discussions with your mentee?

- What are the benefits and costs of mentoring?

School–university relationships questions:

- What kinds of contact do you have with the university? How do you find the current state of relationship between you/your school and the university?
- How do you find the mentoring scheme initiated by the university? Are there aspects that need to be improved?

Conception of mentoring questions:

- What does ‘mentoring’ mean to you?
- Mentee background information questions:
- How many years of teaching experience do you have? How many years have you worked in your present school?
- How was the mentor assigned to you?

Mentor roles and responsibilities questions:

- What do you think are the mentor’s responsibilities? As a mentee, what are your responsibilities?
- Please look at these cards which describe areas of mentoring support:
- Which ones best describe the kinds of support you currently receive from your mentor?

Mentor–mentee relationships questions:

- Describe how you interacted with your mentor in mentoring situations.
- Please look at these cards which contain a list of words describing mentor–mentee relationships:

- Which ones best describe the current state of relationships between you and your mentor?
- Which ones best describe your conception of the most ideal mentor–mentee relationships?

Mentoring program questions:

- Please describe the kinds of support you received from your mentor.
- Before the teaching practice, did you meet with your mentor to discuss your teaching practice arrangements? What did the discussion focus on? How useful did you find the discussion?
- How often did the mentor observe your lessons and conduct pre- and post-lesson discussions with you? What did these discussions focus on? Were they useful?

School–university relationship questions:

- What kinds of learner support did you receive from the university during your teaching practice? Do you find the support useful?
- How do you find the current state of relationship between your mentor/school and the university? Do you think a closer school–university relationship would be beneficial for your professional development? Why?
- How do you find the mentoring scheme initiated by the university? Are there aspects that need improvement?

The conception of mentoring questions:

- What does ‘mentoring’ mean to you?
- Interview questions for university teachers:

- The mentoring scheme questions:
- Why does the university initiate a mentoring scheme in the PGDEP program? What are the aims of the mentoring scheme? What are its main features?
- Mentor's role and responsibilities questions:
- In the mentoring scheme, what are the mentor's responsibilities? What are the mentee's responsibilities?
- Please look at these cards which contain a list of mentor responsibilities:
- Which ones best describe the responsibilities that mentors in the mentoring scheme are currently engaged in?
- Which ones best describe your conception of the most ideal mentor responsibilities?

  Mentor-mentee relationship questions:
- Please look at these cards which contain a list of words describing mentor–mentee relationships:
- Which ones best describe the current state of relationships between mentors and mentees in the mentoring scheme?
- Which ones best describe your conception of the most ideal mentor–mentee relationships?

  School–university relationship questions:
- Please describe the university support provided to mentors and mentees in the mentoring scheme. Do you find the support adequate? If not, which aspects of university support can be increased?

- How do you find the current relationship between the university and mentors/schools? Do you think the relationship should be strengthened? Why?
- Are there aspects of the mentoring scheme that need to be improved? How can they be improved?

The conception of mentoring questions:

- What does ‘mentoring’ mean to you?
- What are the benefits and costs of mentoring to the mentors and mentees?

Lai (2010) identified several themes. The first theme, mentor selection and preparation, involved schools in teacher preparation to include teachers from the same school that act as mentors to provide support and guidance to in-service teachers during their teaching practice. The second theme, mentor roles and responsibilities entailed teachers with experience to take on the role of mentors out of good will without compensation. The third theme included mentors that had no role in the summative assessment of their mentees. The fourth theme, the mentoring program, consisted of mentors’ expectations to provide frequent and timely development support to mentees. Lastly the fifth theme, school-university relationships, involved roles of mentors being advisor, a role model, a critical friend, and a collaborator.

The results of the study showed that the dynamic interaction between mentors, mentored in-service teachers, and university teachers shaped the learning opportunities for the mentored in-service teachers. The in-depth individual interviews indicated that teaching practice and mentored learning, played an important role in in-service teachers’

professional preparation (Lai, 2010). No other information concerning emerging themes from this qualitative study was reported.

The limitations of the study were that professional development for the participating mentors is vague. Moreover, Lai (2010) posited that schools and teacher educational institutions should collaborate to address schoolteachers' development needs and help schools develop their own mentoring forces, which in turn might help schools improve. Therefore, the implication of Lai's to my originally proposed study is that the goal of mentoring helps mentees become effective and self-improving teachers who possess a good level of professional knowledge, expertise in handling complex classroom situations, and a willingness to engage in critical reflection on their practices.

Rubie-Davies, Flint, and McDonald (2011) explored the relationships between teacher characteristics of gender and teaching experience, school contextual variables (socioeconomic level of school and class level), and teacher socio-psychological variables (class level teacher expectations, teacher efficacy, and teacher goal orientation). The authors predicted they would find a relationship between the following variables:

- Teacher efficacy, class level expectation, and a mastery goal orientation
- Gender and the three beliefs variables (teacher beliefs, teacher characteristics, and school contextual variables).
- Teaching experience and the three teacher beliefs variables being investigated.
- Class level taught and the three teacher beliefs variables.
- The socioeconomic level of the school and the three teacher beliefs variables (The researchers predicted a negative relationship for this one).

Rubie-Davies et al. (2011) randomly selected the participants from across the country. There were 68 New Zealand teachers from 18 schools. One variable of interest to the researchers was the year level being taught; so therefore, schools that had three or fewer teachers at grades four to eight were not eligible to participate. Six schools in the study were in rural areas and twelve were in urban areas. Additionally, only schools that used the Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning (asTTle) were eligible to take part in the study. Rubie-Davies et al. described the asTTle as a standardized measure of achievement used in New Zealand. Of the 68 teachers that agreed to take part in the study, 52 were in primary schools, teaching in grades four to six, with students ranging in age from eight to ten years; 16 were in intermediate schools with students approximately eleven to twelve years of age (Rubie-Davies et al., 2011).

The authors posited that in New Zealand, schools were given a decile ranking ranging from one to ten to indicate socioeconomic level, with "one" being schools in poorer areas and "ten" an indicator of those in wealthier areas. Using a questionnaire and a survey method, 68 male and female teachers with varying experience from schools in a variety of socioeconomic areas from rural and urban locations within New Zealand participated in the study. For example, more teachers from high-decile school (6 to 10) (n = 46) than from low decile schools (1 to 5) n = 22) participated, which means teachers in middle-class schools were overrepresented. The researchers noted the imbalance of female to male teachers in New Zealand's primary and intermediate schools as follows: 57 were female whereas only 11 were male. Teaching experience ranged from 1 to 47 years (M = 12.59 years, SD = 19.24 years). Moreover, most teachers (n = 39) had 10

years or less of experience. The researchers noted there was an over representation of teachers with less experience in the sample in comparison to the general primary school teaching population in New Zealand (Rubie-Davies et al., 2011).

Rubie-Davies et al. (2011) invited teachers to take part in the study at the beginning of the academic year. The researchers sent questionnaires to those teachers that agreed at the beginning of March. The authors explained that the questionnaire comprised items that measured personal teacher efficacy beliefs and teachers' mastery and performance goal orientation.

The schools supplied the standardized reading achievement data for each student in the classes of participating teachers. Similarly, teachers completed a survey in which they indicated how much progress they predicted each student in their class would make in reading across the year. The measures were the teacher beliefs questionnaire, which included teacher efficacy and teacher goal orientation items, the teacher expectation survey, and the measure of student achievement. The researchers used the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) to measure teaching efficacy in reading, as well as the two subscales from the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (PALS) that the developers used to measure mastery and performance approaches to instruction.

Rubie-Davies et al. (2011) measured teacher goal orientation by using the mastery approaches to instruction and the performance approaches to instruction subscales of the PALS. The asTTle reading comprehension assessment was used to assess students' reading comprehension, mathematics, and writing. For the three curriculum areas, there was a version written in English and one written in tereo Maori (i.e., the New Zealand

indigenous language). Rubie-Davies et al. (2011) presented the teacher expectation survey to teachers by allowing the teachers to make a list of students and estimate the asTTle level each study would reach by the end of one year.

After a year, the researchers compared teacher expectations for achievement with actual beginning of year asTTle levels. The minimum correlation coefficient that was significant for a sample size of 68 whereas the minimum r significant at a p value of .05 were 0.24; for a p value of .01, the minimum r was .31; and for a significance value of .001, the minimum correlation coefficient were .39. Results from the study showed that beliefs predicted teacher efficacy for student engagement and classroom management. Therefore, the first simultaneous regression included teacher efficacy in reading for instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement that predicted a mastery goal orientation that resulted in an adjusted R2 of .29; $F (3, 64) = 10.21$, $p < .001$). Both efficacy for student engagement ($\beta = .71$, $p < .001$) and classroom management ($\beta = -.41$, $p < .01$) were significant predictors of a mastery goal orientation. However, the negative beta weight for classroom management suggested that the more efficacious teachers were about their classroom management strategies, the less likely they were to be mastery oriented. In addition, the socioeconomic level of the school and the teacher's gender predicted teacher efficacy for engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies. This resulted in an adjusted R2 of .02, $F(3, 64) = 1.47$, $p > .05$), a small effect size ($r = .06$). This means that only 2% of the variance in performance goal orientation could be explained by the model. Efficacy for instructional strategies marginally predicted a performance orientation but in a negative direction ($\beta = -.34$, $p =$

.07) meaning that there was a trend for teachers who were more performance oriented to be less efficacious about their instructional strategies (and vice versa). Efficacy for classroom management and student engagement did not predict a performance goal orientation. (The mean difference score for teachers was 1.22 levels of progress for the year (SD = 0.49). As posited by the authors, the sample size was small and teacher efficacy for instructional strategies negatively predicted a performance goal orientation, in that teachers who were confident in their ability to cater for student needs were less likely to adhere to performance goals. The researchers computed the power statistics to determine the minimum correlation coefficient that is significant at a p value of .05 was 0.24; for a p value of .01, the minimum r was .31; and for a significance value of .001; the minimum correlation coefficient was .39.

The third series of simultaneous regressions included teacher efficacy in reading for instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement predicting class level teacher expectations. No statistically significant relationships were found. Similarly, having a mastery ($\beta = .04$, $p = .75$) or a performance goal orientation ($\beta = .05$, $p = .70$) did not predict teacher expectation. The authors explored types of teacher beliefs as potential moderators of the instruction that teachers ultimately delivered. The authors stated that higher teacher efficacy for engagement of students predicted a mastery goal orientation. Conversely, the authors reported a negative relationship between efficacy for class management and mastery goal orientation. In other words, teacher's high on efficacy for class management were less likely to have mastery goal beliefs and those low on class management efficacy were more likely to have mastery goal beliefs.

Limitations to the study were as follows (Rubie-Davies et al., 2011):

- The sample of teachers involved in the study was small in addition to the number of male teachers.
- The sample was not truly representative in that more teachers from high socio-economic areas participated.
- The proportion of teachers with less experience was greater than the national average.
- The criteria set by the authors for schools included in the study meant that quite a large proportion was ineligible to participate.
- Despite the low alpha level found for the mastery goal orientation subscale, the authors still used scale in their study mainly because it was the only measure that could be located that tests teachers' mastery goal orientation.
- Because the small numbers precluded path modeling, the researchers examined the relationships of the teacher beliefs variables separately as both a cause and an effect rather than simultaneously.

Per the authors, the various limitations above could have an influence on the results to include a limitation on generalizability (Rubie-Davies et al., 2011). This study is important to my originally proposed study because the study centers on teachers' goals and expectation of students' success.

In-service education and training are key factor for student success. Gibbs and Coffey (2004) stated that positive change among teachers after training is evident, as teachers move from a teacher focus, to a student focus. Moreover, per Gibbs and Coffey

training leads to an increase in learning, better quality of learning, and improves educational outcomes for students. Therefore, Vernez et al. (2012) emphasized how additional training using evidenced-based tools can continue to increase learning, decrease disturbance, and provide the opportunity for teachers to instruct per curriculum. Similarly, in-service training equipped teachers with a more effective means to help students improve in academics. In addition, training helps teachers improve their teaching methods and interactions with students, which in turn, helps to maintain discipline in the classroom (Jamil et al., 2011).

Docan-Morgan and Manusov (2009) gave teachers an open-and closed-ended questionnaire concerning their relational turning points events with students. The questionnaire yielded four distinct supra-categories of relational turning point events that were comprised of consultation, transgression, intimation, and realization of student potential or success. Teachers who reported intimation and realization of student potential or success turning points events indicated increased liking for students, teacher-student interpersonal relationships, teacher self-efficacy, teacher motivation, and teacher job satisfaction (Docan-Morgan & Manusov, 2009). As posited by the researchers, teachers who reported consultation turning point events indicated either an increase or a decrease in teacher outcomes, depending on the nature of the events (Docan-Morgan & Manusov, 2009). Therefore, due to studies such as this one, I originally hypothesized that the REBT, ABC model could be a useful tool for teachers to use in their classrooms to help their students reduce disruptive behaviors (Dryden, 2002b; Richmond, 2013). Due to my change in procedures nothing was changed in this content between the new studies.

Teacher Interventions in the Classroom

Researchers have suggested that nearly all educators employed some form of behavioral modification techniques in their classrooms (Reiber & McLaughlin, 2004). In addition, there were many techniques used such as Prevent-Teach-Reinforce (PTR), Response to Interventions (RTI), School Based Management (SBM), active learning and peer review, to assist in managing disruptions in the classroom. Odom, Glenn, Sanner, and Cannella (2009) posited that teachers employing techniques in the class setting might serve as effective tools for students to take responsibility for their own learning.

Dunlap et al., (2010) explained that Prevent-Teach-Reinforce (PTR) is a process designed of school-based teams for developing and implementing individualized behavior support for those students with the most severe challenges. The intent of developers of the Prevent-Teach-Reinforce (PTR) model was for it to address the needs of students with the most serious behavior problems. Educators can implement the PTR in the contexts of general, and special education, as well as any placements that concur with the student's Individualized Education Program (IEP) team. The authors used two case scenarios as illustrations of the process and effectiveness of the PTR model with diverse teams and students. There were two students chosen. Both students were participants in a large-scale evaluation of the PTR approach.

As explained by the authors, the first case participant, "Mike," was from the Florida cohort of participants, and the second case participant, "Jose," was in the Colorado cohort. Mike was an 8-year-old European American student in a second-grade general education classroom who had no identifiable special education classification,

although teachers did not allow him to move into the third-grade due to unsatisfactory progress in class and teachers' consideration of a 504 referral.

A 504 referral is a referral that educators can make for students who have a physical or mental impairment that limits the individual in one or more major life activities to include caring for himself or herself such as in performing manual tasks, walking, seeing, hearing, speaking, breathing, eating, sleeping, standing, lifting, bending, reading, concentrating, thinking, communicating, working, and learning. The impairment can also encompass the operation of a major bodily function, including but not limited to functions of the immune system, normal cell growth, digestive, bowel, bladder, neurological, brain, respiratory, circulatory, or endocrine functions by a parent/guardian, teacher, school staff, or a significant other Section 504 and the Education of Children with Disabilities, 2008).

Similarly, the researchers described Jose, as a 9-year-old Hispanic fourth grade student in a general education classroom that also has no special education classification. Educators first nominated Jose to be in the PTR evaluation when he was in the third grade; however, random assignment placed him in the comparison group for the first year. Researchers implemented 15 questions to assess the social validity scores from both Mike's and Jose's teachers after interventions (team building, goal of intervention, PTR assessment, PTR intervention, coaching, and evaluation). The research questions were:

- Given this student's behavior problems, how acceptable do you find the Prevent-Teach-Reinforce behavior plan?
- How willing are you to carry out his behavior plan?

- To what extent do you think there might be disadvantages in following this behavior plan?
- How much time will you need each day to carry out this behavior plan?
- How confident are you that the behavior plan will be effective for this student?
- How likely is this behavior plan to make permanent improvements in this student's behavior?
- How disruptive will it be to carry out this behavior plan?
- How much do you like the procedures used in the proposed behavior plan?
- How willing will other staff members be to help carry out this behavior plan?
- To what extent are undesirable side effects likely to result from this behavior plan?
- How much discomfort is this student likely to experience during this behavior plan?
- How willing would you be to change your routines to carry out this behavior plan?
- How well will carrying out this behavior plan fit into the existing routine?
- How effective will the intervention be in teaching your student appropriate behavior?
- How well does the goal of the intervention fit with the team's goals to improve the student's behavior?

Dunlap et al. (2010) scored each question from one to five, with one always being the answer with the lowest magnitude (e.g., "not at all acceptable," "not at all willing,"

"not at all") and five always being the highest magnitude (e.g., "very acceptable," "very willing," and" and "very much"). Per the evaluation, the baseline and post-intervention outcome indicated the plan was effective in decreasing Mike's disruptions and increasing his task engagement. During baseline, ratings of Mike's disruptive behavior averaged 3.8, indicating frequent occurrences of the behavior, and the mean scores for task engagement and work completion was 2.3 and 2.2. Following the introduction of the PTR intervention, the mean rating scores for appropriate behaviors increased (task engagement = 3.6; work completion = 3.6) and the mean rating for his problem behavior of disruptions decreased (2.4).

The researchers took two post-test academic engaged time measurements during independent work time, resulting in a mean score of 81%, a gain of 21 percentage points over his baseline score. Similarly, at baseline, Jose's mean ratings for the appropriate behaviors of following directions and times to interact were 2.8 and 3.2, and his mean score for the problem behavior of being off task was 2.8. After intervention, his mean rating scores increased for both appropriate behaviors to 4.5 and his off task mean score decreased to 1.6 (Dunlap et al., 2010). Data from the two cases indicated that the PTR intervention was effective in reducing student problem behaviors and increasing prosocial behaviors.

As per the authors, the limitations to the study is that they based the time series data reported in the case examples on teacher perceptions that did not meet the standards of rigor as representative of reliable direct observations. The reason for this type of data collection was so that typical teachers and school-based teams could implement effective

interventions and evaluations of those interventions (Dunlap et al., 2010). Even though the standard scores for both students moved in the direction of an increase in social skills and a decrease in problem behaviors, it was impossible to attach significance to the scores with only a two-student sample. The authors theorized the PTR model represents an effort to address the substantial needs of schools for a program of behavioral intervention that is standard, individual, feasible, effective, and practical for implementation by school professionals, so that many students and teachers could benefit from a systematic implementation to the programs' strategies.

Epstein, Atkins, Cullinan, Kutash, and Weaver (2002) collected and examined research studies that evaluated the impact of individual class-wide and school-wide behavioral interventions to develop the practice guide. They theorized that a practice guide, using evidenced-based recommendations could address the reduction of behavior problems in elementary classroom and they wanted to explore the impact of a preventive intervention program, for 1st graders at a high risk for long-term antisocial behavior, a random control trial was chosen. The Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATH) addressed four domains of skills: emotional understanding and communication, and friendship. The authors suggested that the research studies examined should be applicable to the specific needs of educators. The authors also postulated that the practice guide tool used assists teachers in decision making to develop and implement effective prevention and intervention strategies that promote positive student behavior.

Due to concerns of both the community and educators regarding disruptive student behaviors, school administrations often establish policies that includes a set of

strict rules that results in severe consequences (Simonsen et al., 2008). Approval of the rules are through school administrators, who select a group of teachers, who are representatives of the certified faculty. Administrators also select a group of representatives of special services (counselor, social worker, etc.), members of the support staff (secretary, janitor, etc., and a family member representative that guides the implementation process) (Simonsen et al., 2008). However, Skiba and Peterson (2008) indicated that severe consequences have little impact on student behavior. Engle and Black (2007) also shared that there was a need for teachers to take into consideration the living environments of students, such as the income level and access to adequate food.

Sugai (2007) addressed school-wide positive behavioral support and response to interventions in the classroom via a keynote presentation at the Response to Intervention summit. Sugai (2007) suggested the need for teachers to provide effective and explicit instructions that maximized students' understanding of concepts, skills, and information. Sugai (2007) used a Response to Intervention (RTI), which is a general problem-solving framework and an approach for establishing and redesigning teaching and learning environments, so the environments are effective, efficient, relevant, and durable for all. The RTI has conceptual and empirical foundations, applied behavior analysis, curriculum-based measurement, precision teaching, pre-referral interventions, teacher assistance learning, diagnostic prescriptive teaching, and data-based decision making. Response to Intervention is shaped by seven characteristics that includes universal screening, data-based decision making and problem solving, continuous progress, continuous progress monitoring, student performance, continuum of evidenced-based

interventions, and implementation fidelity. Sugai (2007) noted that most students made improvements during their participation in RTI, which continued after discontinuation of service. Sugai stated that this supported the effectiveness of RTI.

Moreover, Sugai (2007) indicated materials used in working with school leadership teams were developed to assist schools in efforts to improve school climate and school-wide positive behavior support for all students. Sugai (2007) also added that the with the use of materials in the context of other initiatives and interventions in classroom settings, there is a possibility that improvement of student academic and social behavior outcomes can become a reality for all students. Concluded in Sugai's (2007) presentation was that RTI is a good framework and logic for organizing and increasing the efficiency with which evidenced-based practices are selected, organized, integrated, implemented, and adapted. Information provided through this presentation is important to my study because of the emphasis of the proper use of RIT and the fact that with the proper use, RTI can prove as an effective tool for teachers use in the classroom.

Vernez, Karam, and Marshall (2012) provided both a quantitative and a qualitative status report on the implementation of school-based management (SBM) and identified themes that enhanced the successful practices of SBM on student achievement. The researchers classified schools in 12 strata with dimensions of low, midrange, and high levels of SBM implications, low and high expenditures per student, and urban versus rural. Per the authors, they limited the number of schools chosen to just three of the seven regions for logistical and access reasons. Out of the 400 schools possible Vernez et al. (2012) chose only a stratified sample of 40 schools for participation.

The researchers chose school personnel (principals, teachers, and school committee members), parents, and district staff for in-depth face-to-face interview and recordings to conduct in-depth interviews. The research questions were:

- How has school-based management (SBM) progressed in Indonesia?
- How can SBM be improved?

The researchers used separate interview protocols for the principals, and separate focus groups of teachers, school committee members, and parents. For the teacher and parent focus groups, the researchers randomly selected four participants. For the SC and BOS team focus groups, included were the chair and up to three members randomly selected from the list of SC members. According to the researchers, two staff members, one of whom took notes of responses to questions, interviewed participants face-to-face.

Per the authors, the protocols were designed to obtain an in-depth understanding of each stakeholder's knowledge of SBM principles and requirements, school governance, school autonomy, participation in decision making, district support and accountability, and effects of SBM. Note-takers wrote down responses from principals and focus group participants. The researchers reviewed and revised the notes and translated them into English. An analysis then read the responses to each question and summarized the comments in a comparative format. The detailed summaries were then used to write up a case study report for each topic covered: participation in school decision making, district support and accountability, and the effects of SMB. Parent focus groups responses were reviewed and summarized independently and covered topic areas

of school governance, parental voice, and factors that would make their children's schools better.

Noted limitations by the authors were that even though the researchers asked mainly questions of fact, meaning that transparency of information and accountability by the districts, participation by parents and the local community was minimal as evident of reports by the authors that the parents or the local community did not receive information. This in turn, limited parents', and the community's ability to participate in final decisions in school matters. The school principal and teachers were very much empowered to assert professional control of the school. Findings were based on self-reports from various respondents and as posited by the authors were subject to imprecision and to social desirability bias. Social desirability bias may result if respondents systematically provided answers, they believe will present them or their school in a positive light rather than providing the most accurate factual answer or opinion (Vernez et al., 2012).

Another limitation identified by the authors were that the survey conducted were at a single point in time, therefore the analysis offered a snapshot of SBM practices as a cumulative outcome of nearly eight years of experience after the first introduction in a few districts and schools and expanded nationwide shortly thereafter. In addition, it was eight years after collecting the data that Vernez et al. (2012) shared the themes with the successful practices of SBM. Key findings indicated that school autonomy was critical to successful implementation of school-based management. Vernez et al. (2012) suggested

that teacher training was a key factor in the success of both teacher and student. This study is important to my study that the SBM method can enhance student achievement.

Techniques that teachers employ in the classroom allow for behavioral support to students who display challenging and disruptive behaviors (Dunlap et al., 2010). It is also helpful when teachers use workable practice guides and evidenced-based recommendations to help decrease behavior problems in schools (Dunlap et al., 2010). The techniques the teachers provide in the classroom allow for active engagement of students, allow students to take responsibility for their own learning, and allow teachers to provide activities that facilitate active learning (Odom et al., 2009). Teachers need to redesign teaching and learning environments so that they are effective, efficient, relevant, and durable (Sugai, 2007).

School Counselors

In this section, I review content related to the role and duties of school counselors, in the United States in general, as well as for school counselors in the state of Louisiana specifically. Whenever possible I addressed issues specific to Louisiana elementary school counselors, because my study is specific to students, teachers, and counselors within that population. In addition, in this section I discuss issues regarding school counselor caseloads, job satisfaction, burnout, job turnover, and how teacher referrals to school counselors for behavioral issues affect these factors. It should be noted that school counselors are not the population for my study, schoolteachers are, but I hope the results of my study will contribute to positive change in the workload of school counselors as well as to providing a more positive classroom environment for student learning to take

place. Therefore, I believe it is prudent to speak about school counselors in this section as potential secondary beneficiaries of my intervention of my intended original study. Results from my secondary study will also apply benefits to school counselors as well.

Job duties and roles. School counselors' task, roles, and duties related to their school will differ depending upon the educational setting (e.g., elementary, middle-school, or high school) as well as upon the state in which the school is located, and the administration decisions made by the school's principal (Clemens, Milsom, & Cashwell, 2009; Nobels, 2011, Peabody, 2014; Rock et al., 2017). School counselors are generally tasked with assisting students with career, emotional, social, mental health, and educational needs (Rock et al., 2017). However, the school counselor's role as a mental health provider has steadily increased over the last few decades due to student issues such as bullying, student suicide, and dating violence (Nobels, 2011; Peabody, 2014; Reinke et al., 2013). School counselors are usually first responders when students exhibit an issue with mental health or are in crisis (Bidwell, 2013; Nobels, 2011; Peabody, 2014). It is estimated that 20% of all school children in the United States suffer from stressors or mental health conditions that impede their ability to learn (Peabody, 2014). School counselors are tasked with being instrumental in helping remove learning barriers for children so that they can succeed (Barna & Brott, 2013).

School counselors are important providers of mental health interventions for children in the K-12 educational system (Reinke et al., 2013). For many children, the manifestation of mental health issues results in disruptive behavior (Reinke et al., 2013; Talamo, 2017). Researcher have supported the notion that teachers who have been

effectively trained to manage negative student behaviors in their classrooms are able to engage in more instructional time, and students have more positive educational outcomes, and less long-term negative social outcomes (Martens & Andreen, 2013; Reinke et al., 2013; Talamo, 2017) as compared to teachers who are not able to effetely manage their classrooms. This later group of teachers often refers students with behavioral and emotional issues to the school counselor (Reinke et al., 2013).

In the State of Louisiana, the administrative codes signify that school counselors "shall spend the majority of their time on providing direct counseling related to students. Responsibilities of the school counselor shall not include the administration of discipline, substitute teaching, or administrative clerical duties" (State of Louisiana, 2016, p. 33). Further Louisiana school counselors are mandated to engage in developmental and preventative programs via an interdisciplinary approach. These duties are to include: "providing counseling, educational information, career/occupational information, personal/social information services, referral services, consultation, orientation, testing, placement, and follow-up" and programs should be aimed to eliminate barriers to student success in academics, which includes issues related to delinquency and behavioral disruptions to the learning process (State of Louisiana, 2016, p. 33). School counselors in Louisiana are also responsible for providing services to parents, teachers, and administrators (State of Louisiana, 2016).

However, these mandates are not necessarily being followed in all Louisiana schools. Latour and Degruise (2015) noted that Louisiana school counselors often feel overwhelmed from completing non-school counseling related administrative tasks.

Wright and Lesisko (2011) found that the school principal largely has control over the role and duties of school counselors within Louisiana schools. This can lead to role confusion and a disparity between what the principal and counselor both envision in terms of counselor roles and duties. This could also cause incongruence between what the school counselor is being asked to do versus what he or she was trained to do (Latour & Degruise, 2015).

Latour and Degruise (2015) and Wright and Lesisko (2011) denoted that Louisiana school counselors needed to be proactive in holding meetings with their principals to discuss role expectations and responsibilities. These authors advocated for using a Principal-Counselor Agreement form that puts these conversations into writing. These clarifications, such as the counselor's direct role in terms of student behavioral referrals could help reduce experiences of counselor burnout. The topic of counselor burnout will be discussed in more detail below. Such clarification and collaboration between school principal and counselor has been found linked to positive student outcomes, positive school climate, and counselor job satisfaction (Rock et al., 2017; Wright & Lesisko, 2011).

Counselor caseloads. In Louisiana public schools, the counselor to student ratio is 1:423 (ASCA, 2013). The College Board Advocacy and Policy Center (2012) reported that the average national public-school counselor caseload as 1:386. The American School Counselor Association (2014) National Model recommends a ratio of 1:250. Therefore, Louisiana's school counselors' caseload ratios significantly exceed the ASCA recommendation and national average. Due to recent budget cuts, some Louisiana

schools do not have the counselors needed to resource and properly staff the school (Sentell, 2015). In those schools, counselor to student ratios might be higher. While data could not be found for elementary school counselor caseloads, high school counselor caseloads have been associated with poorer student outcomes including increased behavioral issues and disciplinary problems in the classroom (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2011).

In addition to the high caseload rates, the parish where I had planned to conduct my original study reported that the population of at-risk students who are served by school counselors is at 72%, with 68% of those students coming from low socioeconomic backgrounds (Talamo, 2017). In addition, in 2013-2014 there were 103 school-based arrests of students within schools located in the target parish, while in 2014-2015 there were 78 school-based arrests. Researchers have also noted that school counselors with large active caseloads are more susceptible to burnout, impairment, and low job satisfaction (Nobels, 2011; Pyne, 2011). I discuss these issues in the next sections. Counselors who work in low socioeconomic areas often have higher demands, role stress, and role complexity, because they work with students who have the highest need in the state (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2011)

School counselor active caseloads are important in terms of determining student success. Public schools for whom students had more success starting at college reported the smallest counselor to student caseload ratios (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012). Thus, counselor caseloads can not only impact counselor burnout rates, but they can also adversely impact the college readiness of students (Woods & Thurston,

2014). In addition, schools with greater ratios of students who are on free or reduced-priced lunch under Title 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, also reported higher school counselor caseloads (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012). School counselors that work in schools that have a Title 1 designation, on average, have 69 more students in their caseload than for schools that do not have that designation (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012). Large counselor caseloads diminish the counselor's ability to effectively serve all students (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012).

Fall and Nichter (2007) completed a qualitative phenomenological study to illustrate the job stress phenomenon in the counselors' own voices that identify role ambiguity, role conflict, and work overload that contributed to counselors' job stress. The study involved counselors' participation by answering open-ended questions to complete the interview process. Independently, two researchers studied the transcribed interviews. The researchers identified themes from each transcript and placed them in categories as per the subject matter. The themes included job stress, role ambiguity, role conflict, and job overload. Per the results, conflicting demands on the counselor's time resulted in counselors feeling overwhelmed and frustrated due to the lack of resources they deemed were necessary to complete their job duties. Participants articulated concern about the size of their caseloads. The participants stated that an average caseload was approximately 450 students with 40% to 50% being from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, who had more counseling needs (Fall & Nichter, 2007). The authors

posited that making the workload more realistic for counselors would lessen the demands of counselors (Fall & Nichter, 2007).

Similarly, a study by Vail (2005) revealed that counselors' roles were not clear in that principals viewed counselors as having the flexibility to take on assignments that no one else would cover. Vail (2005) indicated that when jobs and programs in the counseling arena were no longer in existence, remaining counselors struggled under heavy caseloads to include indirect services such as system support. Vail (2005) also stated that counselors emphasized that they were educators that served all students to include students that had immediate problems. Therefore, the success of my study could possibly support the efficacy of an intervention that could reduce referrals to the counselor's office and thus decrease counselors' caseloads and stress. This study informed my intent for my original study in that there is a potential to help reduce school counselors' workload and stress by giving teachers a tool to help students' problem behavior, rather than making a referral.

Burnout, stress, and job satisfaction. In a study conducted by Nobels (2011) of the variables tested for school counselor burnout, counselor caseload size was found to be a significant factor in counselors experiencing exhaustion and burnout. School counselors in general suffer from higher rates of job stress and burnout than do other types of counselors (Pyne, 2011). It is estimated that school counselors will inevitably suffer from burnout within the first ten years of their tenure (Nobels, 2011). It is further estimated that 10-20% of school counselors suffer from low levels of job satisfaction, which can increase levels of counselor frustration and burnout (Nobels, 2011).

Burnout has three components (a) emotional exhaustion, (b) a sense of cynicism, and (c) a diminished sense of self-efficacy (Young, 2015). When suffering from burnout, school counselors may feel less effective in performing their job duties and might find less meaning in the work that they do (Gündüz, 2012; Nobels, 2011; Young, 2015). Therefore, they may not be as effective in administering to students' needs (Nobels, 2011; Pyne, 2011; Young, 2015). Burnout can also lead to a reduction in job satisfaction, lowered morale, counselor health problems, a drop-in counselor productivity, depression, family and relationship conflict, and substance use (Nobels, 2011; Pyne, 2011; Young, 2015). In addition, when counselors feel there is a high level of work demand, yet they experience a low level of job control, this can also lead to burnout (Young, 2015).

Job satisfaction has been described as whether a person's occupation satisfies that person's goals and needs, both personal and professional. Job satisfaction is also measured in terms of a person's positive feelings about the job, its tasks, and their work environment (Yesilyaprak & Boysan, 2015). Some researchers, and job satisfaction theories, also denote that what an individual brings to the job contributes to that person's feeling of satisfaction. Therefore, individual variables such as personality and individual character are contributors as are other incentives such as salary or status (Yesilyaprak & Boysan, 2015).

School counselors are increasingly being held accountable for contributing to the academic success of students. This creates greater stress and pressure on these counselors (Barna & Brott, 2013). Role overload, poorly defined roles, role conflict, large caseloads, lack of supervision, and low levels of job satisfaction can lead school counselors to suffer

from higher rates of burnout (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2011; Gündüz, 2012; Nobels, 2011; Yesilyaprak & Boysan, 2015). Engaging in too many tasks that are non-counseling related were also found to lower school counselors' job satisfaction (Pyne, 2011). This was particularly found true for high school counselors as opposed to elementary school counselors (Pyne, 2011; Yesilyaprak & Boysan, 2015). In addition, poor job satisfaction has been shown to lead to poor life satisfaction, particularly among school workers (Yesilyaprak & Boysan, 2015).

Pyne (2011) asserted that instituting programs in the school that reduces the stress of the school counselor, and increases the school counselor's job satisfaction, can increase the effectiveness and dedication of the school counselor, bringing extended benefits to students. Many school counselors feel they are being "spread too thin" to do their job effectively (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012, p. 12). Wilkerson (2009) determined that school counselors within the United States had higher rates of burnout depending upon school counselors' years of experience and emotion-oriented coping styles, specifically if the school counselor uses an avoidance-oriented coping style.

School counselor turnover rate. High job demands, counselor burnout, low levels of job satisfaction, and high levels of stress can lead to high employment turnover rates for counselors (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2011; Young, 2015). When counselors leave positions due to burnout, stress, and low job satisfaction, this can cause a strain and disruption on the school (Bidwell, 2013; Young, 2015). Such turnover creates service voids until a new school counselor can be hired and acclimated to the

school (Young, 2015). The workload burden on other counselors while that position is unfilled creates additional stress on students and staff. For a school that has only one school counselor, student needs could go unserved (Young, 2015).

Impact of School Teachers on School Counselors

Teachers in Louisiana can have children removed from the classroom due to behavioral or disciplinary issues (State of Louisiana, 2016). In the state of Louisiana, high referrals to the school counselor for student discipline concerns has been problematic for all concerned (Sentell, 2015; Talamo, 2017). In one elementary school within the State of Louisiana, in the parish in which I had planned to conduct my original study, teachers made 741 student referrals for problem behaviors in the classroom during a single academic year (Talamo, 2017). Investigators who explored the high number of referrals found that teachers and parents were not communicating well in relationship to student classroom behaviors (Talamo, 2017). Teachers and all school personnel must hold students accountable for their behavior and any teacher "may take disciplinary action to correct a student who disrupts normal classroom activities, who is disrespectful to a teacher, who willfully disobeys a teacher, who uses abusive or foul language directed at a teacher or another student, who engages in bullying, who violates school rules, or who interferes with an orderly education process" (Louisiana, State Legislature, 2017, para 1). Therefore, due to the State's attempts to reduce suspensions and expulsions, teachers often have no other recourse but to refer students with behavioral issues to the school counselor.

State of Louisiana's Response to the Problem

In the state of Louisiana, school suspensions and expulsions occur at a rate of 10% of all students for in-school suspension and 8% of all students for out-of-school suspensions (Talamo, 2017). Students in this age range can be suspended or expelled for "willful disobedience, intentional disrespect toward teachers, principals, profane language, carrying firearms, bullying, or school disturbances" (Sentell, 2015, p. 4) as well as failure to wear a school uniform (Toch, 2015). As previously mentioned, prior to such steps, students are often referred to the school counselor for intervention (Talamo, 2017). Both the American Academy of Pediatrics and the American Psychological Association have refuted school suspensions and expulsions as unfeasible solutions to student mental health, behavioral, or emotional concerns. The State of Louisiana is looking for alternative interventions to rectify this problem (Talamo, 2017). They have implemented several to rectify this problem.

Changes to school environment. The educational system of Louisiana developed a website called Greatschools.org to give students and parents an opportunity to rate their experiences within their schools (Talamo, 2017). The school district in the parish in which this current study takes place has also implemented Class Dojo, which is a system through which parents and teachers can communicate. Parents receive communication in the form of text messages on their phones (Talamo, 2017). These are the Louisiana educational system's efforts to increase communication between teachers and parents regarding students.

School principals have also identified that a more positive school environment needs to be created for students. Some efforts that have been made have been creating signs to put up in the hallways of schools such as “Attention: Only positive attitudes allowed in this area” (Talamo, 2017, p. 15) as well as increasing cooperation with local law enforcement and increasing the amount of school resource officers (Talamo, 2017). In addition, teachers, counselors, principals, and other staff try to be visible during instructional breaks to develop positive relationships with students. Therefore, if the student does get a referral for a behavioral issue, the student has a more positive view of the person to whom he or she is being sent, because that relationship has already been established (Talamo, 2017). Stronger student-adult relationships have been found to support more positive student outcomes (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2011). Researchers have also demonstrated that students who have more positive relationships with school counselors often do better academically than those students who do not (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2011).

Senate bills. Louisiana State Senator Broom wrote Senate Bill 54 through which he sought to prohibit student suspension from grades kindergarten through third and mandated different measures to handle student misbehavior (Sentell, 2015). However, the Louisiana Association of Principals and the Louisiana School Board did not support Senator Broom’s bill (Sentell, 2015). School administrators were against eliminating suspension or expulsion for these early elementary grades. Representative Walt Leger introduced a similar bill that had the backing of the Southern Poverty Law Center that sought to require schools that had excessively high rates of school suspensions and

expulsions to provide a plan for reforming the way it handles student discipline. High rates of school suspensions and expulsions have been defined as greater than 50% higher than state average, (Vanacore, 2016). Further Leger's bill would require the formation of a Commission on Safe Supportive Discipline composed of 15 members who would meet twice per academic year and oversee discipline plans at schools who have been identified as problematic (Vanacore, 2016). This is scheduled to be implemented by the end of the 2017-2018 school year (Vanacore, 2016). Schools that cannot effect change in their suspension and expulsions rates by the end of two years will be required to hire outside consultants (Vanacore, 2016). At the time of the bill's proposal, 19 schools were identified who fit the criteria for needing intervention in this manner (Vanacore, 2016).

Youth empowerment project. The State of Louisiana has also developed the Youth Empowerment Project. This is a re-integration program whereby troubled youth are assigned both a mentor and a youth advocate who meet personally with a student from three to five times per week. This program has helped to keep 91% of students who have been in trouble with the law, stay outside of the juvenile justice system with the parish that my study targets (Talamo, 2017).

Recovery school districts. The state of Louisiana has also engaged in what it calls Recover School Districts (RSD). The mission of the RSD is to reform education in the state under the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). Under the RSD troubled schools are given autonomy to engage in reform activities to strengthen their schools. Once reform has been successful, these schools then return under the governance of the state (Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a).

The RSD program was first introduced in New Orleans schools after Hurricane Katrina and the program had great success helping these schools turn around their statistics regarding student completion rates. The program also helped students increase their ACT scores and the number of students entering college also increased (Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a; Toch, 2015).

One central installment under the RSD was to incorporate a student expulsion hearing process and incorporate interventions to address student behavioral issues (Recovery School District, 2015). Furthermore, discipline infractions have now been tiered, so lessor offenses do not receive as strict of punishment. In addition, disciplinary conferences have been initiated for first time student offenders and school personnel receive formalized training in the use of these conferences (Recovery School District, 2015). Since instituting these policies, Louisiana schools have seen a 23% decline in the number of student expulsions during the 2014-2015 school year (Recovery School District, 2015).

The State of Louisiana is now seeking to implement the RSD across the state. The legislative session of 2016 designated ACT 91 will allow local governance to regulate their schools under this reform starting July 1, 2018. The ESSA act requires schools to develop research-based interventions for struggling schools. The first parish in which I had planned to conduct my original study has recently entered into this partnership with the RSD and will implement new empirically validated interventions in 14 of its schools (Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a). The parish school board had approved my original plan for implementing the training of teachers in the REBT ABC

model to help modify students' emotional and behavioral disturbances in the classroom. This parish contains 15% of Louisiana's "unacceptable schools" (Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a). Unfortunately, as noted, teachers did not volunteer for the training.

Empirically Based Interventions

While these interventions have helped to reduce the number of suspensions and expulsions, more is needed (Talamo, 2017). School administrators are also calling for interventions that can be conducted within the classroom that will help develop positive behaviors for students from kindergarten through to the third grade. It is hoped that these interventions will provide a foundation for these students' future academic success (Sentell, 2015). Therefore, the State of Louisiana (2016) has now mandated pre-service training for teachers, principals, and other staff in appropriate classroom management strategies.

In particular Louisiana school administrators have been tasked with engaging in "deliberate efforts to create a positive school climate," "prioritize the use of evidence-based prevention strategies such as tiered supports to promote positive student behavior," "provide regular training and supports for school personnel," "collaborate with local mental health, child welfare, and juvenile justice agencies and other stakeholders to align resources, prevention strategies, and intervention services," "set high expectations for behavior and adopt an instructional approach to school discipline" (Department of Education, 2014, p. iv-v). Further, the Southern Poverty Law Center (2009) has

advocated for evidenced-based practices that teachers can use to support positive student behavior.

Current Louisiana state law requires school districts to have plans in place to aid teachers to better manage student classroom behavior (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2009). The hallmark of these methods is that they are: (a) proactive and students are taught the skills they need to effectively regulate their emotions and behavior, (b) comprehensive and are employed throughout the entire school, and (c) data-driven and implementation of the plan must have pre-and post-data that supports its use (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2009). The Southern Poverty Law Center (2009) and the State of Louisiana (2016) have advocated that review of teacher referrals would be an effective way to determine the success of an intervention.

Within my original proposed study, I would have used this collected data to determine and validate the intervention of training teachers to use the REBT ABC model to help students regulate their behavior and reduce the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor. With the change in my method and procedures, my new study explored teacher perceptions of their self-efficacy to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom. I also explored the relationship between teacher self-efficacy and the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process using a demographic survey and the Survey of Behavioral Management Practices.

The change in method and procedures is unfortunate, because working with teachers and training them to use the REBT ABC model with students in grades three and

four could have aided the State of Louisiana's school reform objectives and it would have also aligned with the best practices and principles developed in 2011 by the Department of Education and the U.S. Department of Justice, particularly The Positive Behavior Intervention Support (PBIS), which helps administrators search for strategies to counteract current methods for disciplining students (Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017b; Talamo, 2017).

Therefore, there was precedence for my choosing REBT for my original study, specifically as it has empirical validation in its use with children and has been successful when implemented by teachers in the classroom (Banks, 2011). However, after an exhaustive literature review, I had found no research that explored the impact of teacher REBT interventions with students in the classroom as a reduction in teacher referrals of students to the school counselor for behavioral issues in the classroom. This is a study that still needs to be conducted, but to succeed, I will need the cooperation of Louisiana teachers.

As per Louisiana state law, schools must provide teachers with in-service training opportunities to help teachers improve student behavior in their classrooms regarding "positive behavioral supports and reinforcement, conflict resolution, mediation, cultural competence, restorative practices, guidance and discipline, and adolescent development" (State of Louisiana, 2016, p. 39). Schools are mandated to review discipline data and provide ongoing classroom management training as needed. Therefore, the State of Louisiana did endorse the intervention that I had planned to provide and the administration within the chosen parish had also endorsed my research plan and had

given me permission. Instructing teachers to use the REBT ABC model with students in the classroom directly supported the initiatives of the State of Louisiana and would have been a needed intervention to curb the high rate of student suspensions and expulsions and to assist school counselors in reducing their active caseloads, improving rates of burnout and counselor job turnover.

Covariate of Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic status (SES) affects human functioning in many ways. Scientists measure SES using a combination of education, income and, occupation (APA, 2016). Per Weissman (1984), Goodman (1999) and Spencer (2002), there is a high level of emotional and behavioral difficulties that can include anxiety, depression, attention-deficit/hyperactivity, and conduct disorder within the school setting that associates with low levels of SES. Low SES and its correlates, such as lower education, poverty, and poor health, affect society (APA, 2016). Moreover, researchers have indicated that children from low SES households and communities develop academic skills more slowly as compared to children from higher SES groups (Morgan, Farkas, Hillemeier, & Maczuga, 2009).

Similarly, Lapointe, Larocque, Pagani, and Tremblay (2003) examined the impact of junior kindergarten on children's behavior development with regional differences and individual and household factors, using secondary data from the first cycle of the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY). I will discuss these factors below. The researchers posited that children from disadvantaged environments

faced a higher risk of behavior problems between children from economically disadvantaged families (LaPointe et al., 2003).

The researchers examined the impact of junior kindergarten on children's behavior development using the same data set. Therefore, the researchers hypothesized that junior kindergarten attendance would reduce the risk gap for behavior problems between children from poor families and those from wealthier families. The sample for this study was comprised of 4828 children from 3837 Canadian households. The researchers did not report any other demographics.

The dataset from the NLSCY identified the Person Most Knowledgeable (PMK). For the data they examined, the authors reported that the Person Most Knowledgeable (PMK) was the birth mother in 4356 (90.2%) cases and the birth father in 363 (7.5%) cases. The remaining cases the PMK was the adoptive mother or father, the stepmother or father, the foster mother, or another related person.

The authors identified the data of households by listing the number of children within the household and coded the number as one, two, three, and or four children (corresponding to n = 2930, n = 826, n =78, and n = 3). The researchers then clustered these households into a hierarchical structure, as they deemed it likely that the responses for children within the same household would be close in comparison. The authors used dummy codes to categorize the independent variables of the household individual level measures whereas the independent variables of the household level measure and household socioeconomic status (SES) were continuous variables. I will explain these

measures below. The authors provided the independent variables: Individual level measures as follows:

- Junior kindergarten. A dummy variable indicated whether the child had attended junior kindergarten (= 1) or not (= 0).
- Sex: A dummy variable indicated whether the child was a girl (- 0) or a boy (- 1).
- Age: This variable was a balance of the child's age (equal to the real age -8), that represented integer values between -3 and 3, in that each household contributed between one and four children to the sample. Data of households were treated with one, two, three, and four children (that corresponded to n = 2930, n = 826, n = 78, and n = 3, and clustered into a hierarchical structure due to the authors belief that the responses for children within the same household were correlated.

The authors used two versions of the five behavioral measures that they developed for the NLSCY in collaboration with the University of Montreal and Chedoke-McMaster Hospital and one version from the PMK questionnaire, and another from the teacher questionnaire to establish the dependent variables. To rule out possible selection bias, households (N =3837) retained by the researchers were compared to households that were not retained because of missing values (N = 4025) using tests on proportions and t-tests (Pagani et al., 2003). The researchers conducted simple t-tests comparing the two groups (no junior kindergarten and junior kindergarten) for each scale. According to the authors, they examined the effect of attending junior kindergarten first. They used a parameter estimate with a 95% confidence interval by data source: parent and teacher.

The results of the study revealed that junior kindergarten students did not appear to decrease their problem behaviors. Although children from disadvantaged environments exhibited more behavior problems, attending junior kindergarten did not reduce the risk for behavioral difficulties between children from lower SES and higher SES backgrounds. Therefore, per the authors, it is important for researchers to recognize possible causes of continuous disruptive behaviors shown by children who are in low SES neighborhoods. Socioeconomic status, a continuous variable used in the study, ranged between – 3.10 and 2.82, using Cronbachs co-efficient alpha, based on the education (years of schooling) and occupation of the PMK and spouse, and household income. The authors noted that attending junior kindergarten increased each behavior except for prosocial behavior as reported by the teacher with a PMK estimate of 0.071 and a confidence interval (CI) at 95% (0.333; 0.176).

The authors examined the control variables and indicated the direction of the parameter estimated that boys did worse than girls for hyperactive behavior as evident of PMK of (0.046) at CI of 95% (-0.078; 0.170); prosocial behavior PKM of (0.071) at CI 95% (-0.033; 0.176); emotional disorder PMK of (0.113) at CI 95% (0.220; 0.206); physical aggression PMK of 0.066 at CI at 95% (-0.020; 0.152); indirect aggression PMK of (0.037) at CI at 95% (-0.062; 0.136). Teacher estimates for the effect of attending junior kindergarten noted were estimated on hyperactive behaviors 0.088 at CI at 95% (-0.055; 0.231); prosocial behavior of teacher -0.159 at 95% CI (-0.283; - 0.035); emotional disorder 0.078 at 95% CI (-0.228; 0.184); physical aggression 0.04 at 95% CI (-0.060; 0.139) and indirect aggression estimate 0.121 at 95% CI (-0.005; 0.246).

The researchers reported limitations that included the study results did not show whether junior kindergarten strategy worked when children were placed on positive development pathways to school success. The authors alluded that negative outcomes observed for children with low SES parents pointed to contextual sources. Parents of children with low SES status did not report positive experiences with schools that may have accounted for parents' negative expectations for their offspring and their relationship with neighborhood school in comparison with higher SES parents (Entwisle & Alexander, 1996).

The authors suggested that early educational enrichment programs must find ways to stimulate parents by starting early in getting parents to take care of themselves during pregnancy, breastfeed, and read to their infants and preschoolers daily, which in turn help the children's cognitive ability and concentration prior to commencing junior kindergarten. The authors recommended an examination of the quality of the curriculum to meet the objectives of early childhood education; components of successful early programs should be extracted and integrated into the junior kindergarten curriculum; and a social skills program would also be important.

The researchers determined from the results generated from the two data sources, that junior kindergarten did not give Canadian children a better start. The authors posited that parental involvement was important and acknowledged that it may be more difficult for lower SES parents to be creative and provide a stimulating environment for their children. Moreover, this study relates to my originally planned study in that a consideration for individual's SES status is important when considering inappropriate or

unacceptable behaviors presented by students in the class setting. Socioeconomic status as measured by free or reduced priced lunches was going to be a covariate in my original study. This variable was not used when I had to change my method and procedures.

Mayo and Siraj (2015) conducted a study that identified differences in socialization practices between two groups of working-class families. The researchers' intent was to contribute to an understanding of the how and why some parents and children from low SES families manage to create a family environment that allowed them to overcome the poor odds associated with disadvantages. The researchers conducted 35 case studies as part of the Effective Provision of Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE 3-16) research project. Mayo and Siraj (2015) applied an adaptation of grounded theory using a mixed-methods framework. The researchers used a combination of quantitative data from the EPSSE project, a review of the international literature on aspects of 'risk' and 'resilience' for academic success and collected and analyzed qualitative interview data specifically over the course of two years.

The EPPSE 3-16 is a longitudinal, mixed methods research study that has followed the progress of children from ages 3-16 years (Mayo & Siraj, 2015). The authors used in-depth interviews with children and their parents to investigate parental involvement within their schools whether parental involvement improved children's learning during primary and secondary school years, in working-class families, with children who were academically succeeding above prediction, and with children who were progressing as predicted, given their background characteristics. The authors posited that empirical studies typically show patterns in which children from families

with lower socio-economic status SES) are less successful academically than their peers with more resources (Mayo & Siraj, 2015).

The sample of the study included multilevel modeling that Mayo and Siraj (2015) used to create individual-level residual scores for each child in the EPPSE sample (N=2900). This allowed the researchers to identify ‘overachievers (i.e., children whose residuals for both English and math fell within the highest 20% of residual scores; n = 333) and children who attained as predicted (i.e., residuals between 40 and 60%; n = 189). Mayo and Siraj (2015) included family SES (i.e., the highest occupational status of a parent in the family as measured when children were aged 3or 4) as a further selection criterion. The researchers split the two groups of children by gender and randomly approached families until the sample size included 20 families with children succeeding above prediction (12 girls) and 15 families with children who progressed as predicted (5 girls); the positive response rate was over 80%. In both groups about half of the families had a White UK heritage while the other half included families with Indian, Pakistani, Black African, Black Caribbean, White European and mixed heritage backgrounds.

This study identified two dimensions of parental involvement which were perceived to have significantly contributed to the child’s path to academic success: emotional and practical support with school and learning (Mayo & Siraj, 2015). Limitations that the researchers noted in this study are that the study provides perceptions of parents and children about home practices related to school and learning and children’s academic progress through primary school and the first years of secondary school. Therefore, the data did not offer information about causality. As posited by the authors,

even more importantly, is that the in-depth descriptions reveal that general patterns of practices found for socioeconomic groups, are much more diverse than suggested by quantitative investigations.

Free Lunch

School lunch programs are part of the educational system and they are a valuable tool in the learning process (Gunderson, 1973).Winchell (2009) wrote an article on School Lunch Politics that provided the history of America's Favorite Welfare Program. In the article, Winchell (2009) stated that the school lunch programs have become acceptable and that most Americans do not think of school lunch programs as a form of welfare. Also noted is the fact that school administrators, teachers, and principals can tell the difference in children's behaviors and can see definite personality changes when children did not get lunch (Winchell, 2009).

Huang, Barnidge, and Kim (2015) evaluated the association between National School Lunch Program participation and household food insufficiency by examining trajectories of food insufficient over 10 calendar months. The researchers used data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) to examine the trajectories of food insufficiency. Researchers described the Survey of Income and Program Participation as a nationally representative longitudinal household survey conducted by the US Census Bureau, and included continued series of panels since 1984, with each panel ranged from 2.5 to 4 years, and a sample size of from 14,000 to 36,700 households. The authors reported they conducted linear growth curve analyses in the multilevel modeling content and compared trajectories of food insufficiencies among recipients of

free or reduced-priced lunch and their counterparts that were eligible but chose not to participate in the program. Per the authors, they used data from 4 panels (1996, 2001, 2004, and 2008) of the SIPP.

The authors interviewed respondents in multiple waves to collect information on demographics, economic resources, employment, and public assistance. The authors used data from one wave before the adult well-being topical module to generate a study sample (n = 18,263) that included households with children aged five to18 years and with income lower than 185% of the federal poverty line. The authors asked participants to choose the best of the following statements that described household food experience in four of the referenced months that served as the dependent variable: “enough of the kinds of food we want,” “enough but not always the kinds of food we want,” “sometimes not enough to eat,” and “often not enough to eat.”

The authors created three focal independent variables identified as the calendar month within which survey participants’ information were collected that ranged from January to October. The numbers zero to nine represented 10 calendar months. The second independent variable was a dichotomous indicator of summer months (June to August) that were assigned a value of one on the summer months indicator and other observations were assigned a value of zero. The third independent variable (1 = Yes and 0 = No) indicated whether the sample households had any child that received free or reduced-price lunch from the NSLP in the wave before the adult well-being topical module in the SIPP. The authors listed covariates as characteristics of household heads as control variables that included age, gender, race, marital status, education, and

employment status. Household characteristics included household size, household monthly income, metropolitan status, and if participants participated in the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP).

Participants were heads of households that included children receiving free or reduced-priced lunch (n = 6867). The researchers found that these participants were more likely to be female, black, unmarried, and unemployed, and had a lower educational attainment than those whose children were eligible but did not receive free or reduced-price lunch (n = 11,396). The authors reported that based on the four panels of SIPP, higher rates of food insufficiency for NSLP recipient than NSLP-eligible nonrecipient groups were consistently found over time. Recipients had a greater food insufficiency rate than eligible nonrecipients in non-summer months (1.4 percentage points, $p < 0.1$). The difference in food insufficiently rates between the two groups increased by 0.5 percentage points in summer months ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, a representative increase of 13% in food insufficiency among recipients, because the estimated food insufficiency rate in non-summer months was approximately 3.8%.

The authors identified several limitations of the study. First, eligible non-recipients may not be a good comparison group if they do not share a similar seasonal trend with NSLP recipients with food insufficiency or other confounding factors. The authors indicated other limitations are that their results may also overestimate the NSLP impact if it also carries the impact of other school mean programs, such as the School Breakfast Program and nonlinear growth curve analyses for the dichotomous measure of food insufficiency was not conducted.

The authors concluded that recipients were more likely to suffer from food insufficiency in summer months when the NSLP benefits were not available that implied that the program had an impact in protecting low-income households from food insufficiency. The authors shared that the findings of the study have two important policy implications that entailed NSLP participation can play an important role in reducing food insufficiency rates among low-income households with children and that low-income children who participate in the NSLP had a higher level of food insufficiency in summer. This evaluation by Huang et al. (2015) is important to my originally intended study in that the authors reported that there are negative consequences from inadequate nutrition on various aspects of child well-being such as behavioral problems and reduced educational achievements.

Moreover, some teachers reported they noticed differences in children that had major discipline problems when they did not have lunch. Once the children have eaten lunch, the teachers reported improvement in the attitude of children (Gunderson, 1973). More recently, the National Center for Education Statistics reported the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) under the National School Lunch Program provided a proxy measure for the concentration of low-income students within a school. Children from families with incomes at or below 130 percent of the poverty level are eligible for free meals. Those from families with incomes that are between 130 percent and 185 percent of the poverty level are eligible for reduced-price meals (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014).

The web site Louisiana Believes (2012), lists elementary schools that are high performing, yet are high poverty schools. Each school has a percentage of over 65% indicating free or reduced lunch. There are 839 schools in Louisiana with the state average rankings of 69.6% on free and reduced lunch assistance. Per the report from the school district where I will conduct my study, and the lunch assistance data, higher rates may indicate that the area has a higher level of poverty than the state average (Milne & Plourde, 2006; Sambonmatsu, Kling, Duncan, & Brooks, 2008). Milne and Plourde (2006) and Sambonmatsu et al. (2008) stated that a child's nutrition, parent involvement, and the environments in which children live, all have a significant impact on a child's ability to learn and achieve.

The U.S. Government made free lunch available to low income families as a measure of national security (Louisiana Believes, 2012). Programs now are extended to children in rural areas that included those living in poorer neighborhoods. President Johnson believed that children would do better in school if they had breakfast before attending class. As of today, many teachers in schools posited that more students behave better with a healthy lunch (Louisiana Believes, 2012).

This information was important to my originally intended study in that free lunch is a variable in my study and research has determined this is an important variable related to children's behavior in the classroom. As previously noted, schools with greater ratios of students who are on free or reduced-priced lunch under Title 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act also reported higher school counselor caseloads (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012). School counselors that work in schools that have a

Title 1 designation, on average, have 69 more students in their caseload than for schools that do not have that designation (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012). Large counselor caseloads diminish the counselor's ability to effectively serve all students (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012). However, due to the change in procedure I needed to make for my study, I did not end up using this variable.

Parental Involvement

Parental involvement in school is defined as when the school personnel reported that a parent participated at least once during the school year, such as the parent attending a general school meeting, a scheduled parent-teacher conference, a school or class event, or volunteering in the school or serving on a school committee (McQuiggan & Megra, 2017). Chen (2018) posited that parental involvement is key to student success. Therefore, I chose parental involvement as a variable to my new study to enhance an understanding of how easy or difficult teachers perceived it was for them to get in contact with the parents of students who are disruptive in the class setting.

Conversely, Grady (2016) conducted a study to examine students' views of their definition of the term "parental involvement" and their view of their parent's ability to support the student's academic progress. Grady reported that the students' opinions of how they perceived parental support as compared to teachers and other professionals' definition of the term "parental involvement" were different. However, Grady did not provide the responses from the students' opinion. According to the author, examining the perceptions of parents, teachers, and administrators was essential in understanding the influence of parental involvement on student academic progress. Grady reported that

findings from the study indicated that all participants believed parental involvement was essential for students' academic progress.

Bergnerh (2015) reported that parent support through the school system depicted as an integral part of home-school relations. Moreover, Hamlin and Flessa (2016) posited that educational policies have increasingly promoted parental involvement as a mechanism for improving student outcomes. Hamlin and Flessa further reported that risks involved in the middle school years are challenging. La Salle et al. (2017) reported that parents play a critical role in their children's success and well-being. Consequently, parental involvement had been found to promote children's academic achievement and peer relationships (Garbacz, Zerr, Dishion, Seeley, & Stormshak, 2018).

Ruholt, Gore, and Dukes (2015) conducted a research study to examine the role of parents in adolescent student's academic progress and well-being and indicated that parents play an important role in the development of children as they grow into adulthood and learn how to navigate through life. Ruholt et al. shared that adolescents who have supportive parents tended to have high levels of academic self-efficacy and self-esteem. The researchers posited that parental support had positive effects on children's self-efficacy, and in contrast, low parental support resulted in low self-esteem. Therefore, the authors concluded that from their study, parental support fostered certain aspects of academic well-being that were listed, by the researchers, as motivation and persistence in academics, and more emotional stability.

Parental Support

Parental support is defined as parents and school staff working together to support and improve the learning, development, and health of children and adolescents (Center for Disease Control, 2018). Espelage, Gabriel, Hatchel and Merrin, (2018) conducted a study on parental support in school settings where reportedly suicidality ideations and or attempts were on the rise. In the study, the researchers found that parental support was associated with diminished suicidality and improved students' feelings of belonging in the school setting.

Additionally, Hyunsoo, Kwon and Sangwok, (2015) conducted a study on parental attachment as a mediator between parental social support and self-esteem as perceived by Korean sports middle and high school athletes. The authors reported that both parental social support and parental attachment affected the self-esteem of middle school and high school athletes. Researchers such as Jacke, Raufelder, Regner, and Ringeisen, (2015) conducted a study to determine the perceived role of parental support and pressure in the interplay of test anxiety and school engagement among adolescents. The authors reported that their findings suggested there is a positive association between test anxiety, parental support, parental pressure, and school engagement. The authors also strongly suggested that educators work in close association with parents to develop inclusive programs that seek to improve adolescents' school engagement. The American Federation of Teachers, (2017) shared that effective communication is essential for building school-family partnerships. The American Federation of Teachers also indicated

that good two-way communication between families and school is necessary for a student's success.

Parental Contact

Parental contact is defined as a two-way communication that includes parent conferences, and phone calls or email via the schools' website (American Federation of Teachers, 2017). However, after an exhaustive search, I discovered limited current studies on parental contact. There were numerous studies dated outside of the five -year time period that is considered current. Therefore, Chang, Choim, and Kim (2015), conducted a quantitative study to provide empirical findings on the effects of different types of parents' school involvement (PSI) on their children's mathematics performance. The authors explored parent participation in parent-teacher conferences, voluntary parental involvement in school activities, parent informal contact with school or teachers, and parental phone contact with school or teachers. Chang et al. also revealed that attention was focused on families of linguistic and racial minority groups who may have different dynamics of PSI for children's schooling and academic achievement. The study was designed to examine four types of direct school involvement of parents from racial and linguistic minority families and the influence of PSI on children's mathematics performance outcomes.

Chang et al. (2015) reported that the research questions were: "Do different linguistic and racial groups show different behaviors of PSI?" "Do students from different linguistic and racial groups show different growth patterns of mathematics performance from kindergarten to fifth grade?" "How do familial socioeconomic levels

have different effects on the growth of mathematics performance of students from different linguistic racial groups?" Do different types of PSI have different effects on the mathematical performance of students from different linguistic and racial groups?"

Chang et al. (2015) disclosed that the number of students used for the original study analysis totaled 21,399 students in the kindergarten year (1998), 16,635 students in the first grade, 14,374 students in the third grade, and 11,237 in the fifth grade, having a common attrition pattern in a longitudinal data collection. The authors acknowledged that after the cases which contained all missing values on the four waves were deleted, the data totaled 47,101 observations from 20,459 students.

Chang et al. (2015) reported that they first conducted a series of descriptive statics to determine the mathematics performance of students from different racial and linguistic groups. The authors also shared that the interpretation of parental involvement for each linguistic and racial group was compared with a reference group (English-only group) within a racial group.

The researchers reported that they used four waves of the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study-Kindergarten Cohort (ECLS-K). The four waves of data were collected during the spring semester for students in kindergarten, first, third, and fifth grades. The four waves were selected from the seven available waves, kindergarten to seventh grade, to keep a relative balance among the four-time intervals and the large number of samples.

The main predictor variables of the study were four types of parental school involvement during the spring semester of each grade. The ECLS-K asked teachers to answer the following four yes or no questions:

- Have the child's parents or guardians attended regularly scheduled conferences with you during this school year?
- Have this child's parents or guardians volunteered to help in your classroom or school during this school year?
- Have the child's parents or guardians attended informal meetings with you during this school year?
- Have the child's parents/guardians called you during this school year?

The variables were named as "Conference," "Volunteer," "Informal", and "Phone" and assigned 1 for "yes" and 0 for "no." Chang et al. (2015) stated they chose the four types of PSI for the study for the following reasons: (a) The four PSI were reported by teachers, and thus they were comparatively objective measures on PSI more than parents' self-reports; (b) the four types of PSI were easily observed in elementary schools as manifested behaviors of PSI; and (c) the ECLS-K provided the variables across four grades.

The English-only group were composed of students who spoke English at home and were used in the analyses as a reference group. Both bilingual and ELL groups spoke languages other than English as their primary language. Those two language minority groups were identified by combining information on separate variables of students' home language. The bilingual groups were those who spoke a language other than English as

their primary language although they showed no difficulty with English during kindergarten. For the analysis, the study created two dummy variables (Bilingual and ELL) by assigning a dummy code of 1 to language-minority groups, and the outcomes of those two groups were interpreted by comparing them to those of the English-only group.

In addition to descriptive statistics, there were four longitudinal multilevel models which provided statistics on the growth patterns. The results from the four models were invariably consistent with descriptive statistics having high performance of Asian and White students and low performance of Hispanic and Black students at kindergarten. The four main effects were investigated at the kindergarten year, but the effects of two linguistic groups were analyzed through the interaction of the growth of mathematics performance, SES, PSI, and SES*PSI. Asian (M = 38.86, SD = 12.94) and White (M = 36.37, SD = 11.38) English-only students started off with higher mathematics performance as compared with Hispanic (M =32.31, SD = 9.97) and Black (M = 28.06, SD = 8.89) English-only students at the kindergarten year, and the same score patterns were noted in fifth grades of Asian (M = 124.16, SD =17.98),White (M = 118.06, SD = 19.11), Hispanic (M = 112.94, SD = 20.13), and Black (M =98.42, SD = 21.80) English-only students. The growth pattern of bilingual groups showed variations among the four racial groups. The growth rates of White bilingual students were significantly positive in the models, Conference and Informal, (β 10 = 0.72, SE = 0.29, $p < .01$; β 10 = 0.93, SE = 0.37, $p < .05$, respectively), and those in the other two models were positive but not significant. Black bilingual students showed significantly positive growth rates in all four models (β 11 = 2.01, SE = 0.80, $p < .01$; β 11 = 2.63, SE = 0.92, $p < .01$; β11 = 2.18, SE

= 1.05, p <. 05; β11 = 3.37, SE = 1.06, p <. 01, respectively), indicating that the growth rates (change rates) of mathematics performance of Black bilingual students were significantly higher than those of Black English-only students. Hispanic bilingual students showed a significant negative growth coefficient (β11 = 0.51, SE = 0.20, p < .01) in the Conference model, indicating that their growth rate was significantly lower than that of English-only students. The growth rates of Hispanic bilingual students were insignificantly negative coefficients in the other three models. Asian bilingual students showed insignificant coefficients in all four models. The growth rates of ELL students showed variation among racial groups. White ELL students showed significantly positive growth rates in all four models (β12 = 1.55, SE = 0.60, p < .01; β12 = 1.57, SE = 0.63, p <. 01; β12 = 1.31, SE = 0.66, p < .05; β12 = 1.65, SE = 0.60, p <. 05, respectively), meaning that White ELL students changed (improved) their mathematics performance significantly faster than White English-only students. The authors reported that Black ELL students did not show any significant results and that Hispanic and Asian ELL students showed significantly negatively coefficients in all for coefficients models. Moreover, Hispanic, and Asian ELL students changed their mathematics performance significantly slower than their English-only counterparts. .

In the analysis of Parental School Involvement (PSI) effects, the authors reported that they considered socioeconomic familial conditions (language barriers, cultural conditions), which interact with PSI behavior in this study. Chang et al. (2015) shared that they did not conduct analysis for racial groups, other than the four racial groups selected, due to small samples which the authors reported would cause unreliable

outcomes. An explanation proved by the authors was that the effort was made to examine the differential effects of parental involvement, which may show different dynamics for the three linguistic groups (English-only, bilingual, and ELL) within each of the four racial groups. Therefore, the authors alluded that the interpretation of parental involvement for each linguistic and racial group were compared with a reference group (English-only group) within a racial group. The three linguistic groups of the study were categorized within each racial group. Chang et al. reported that the study included the analysis of the longitudinal growth patterns of mathematics performance of students of linguistic and racial groups. The analytical models were specified in such a way that the growth trajectories of bilingual and ELL groups were compared to English-only students within each racial group. The interpretations of the results were intended to provide an insight into how those students performed mathematically in kindergarten and how they progressed until fifth grade.

This study explicated on my variables in that parental support in the school system has been found to have an impact on students' academic success and that there is a better understanding of the dynamics of parental involvement for families of all backgrounds. The importance of Chang et al. (2015) study to my study is that their research provided important information and practical guidance for educational research with an emphasis on increasing the number of studies in the field of research (Jeynes, 2003). The results from Chang et al. study showed that four different types of PSI had differential effects for different linguistic and racial groups. Moreover, the researchers'

study findings have practical suggestions and implications for educational researchers and practitioners.

This study is important to my research study because the researchers used predictor variables that asked teachers to answer questions concerned with how teachers perceived parental school involvement. My predictor question asked teachers, "how much support do parents with children at their school, give to the teaching staff?" The applicability of Chang et al. (2015) study may be transferable to other settings as I anticipate my research study will. Implementing an awareness of teacher's confidence, noted skills and success in using interventions may prove beneficial to educational researcher throughout the education system.

The authors indicated the limitations of their study included the use of a secondary database, meaning that quantitative analysis of variables, were collected by other researchers, and therefore, did not provide a deeper understanding of the relationships between PSI and students' academic performances. The study limited attention to the manifested parental participation in school events, focusing on analyzing the direct relationships between the parenting behavior and their children's school outcomes. The second limitation of the study was that there were relatively high frequencies of parental involvement in Conference and Phone. Due to lack of variability in the parental, the results may not reveal the relationship, which would have shown if they had variability.

Another limitation of the study was that when the authors interpreted the results of PSI, they attempted to categorize Conference and Volunteer as PSI initiated by

parents' and Informal and Phone as PSI initiated by teachers. However, the categories may have been over-simplified based on our speculation, not from actual data. My study will overcome the limitation of categories being over-simplified categories based on speculation by my reporting actual data from the results of the survey.

Another study conducted by Goldberg and Smith (2014) explored parental engagement in schools in the context of adoptive parent families. The study results reported were that parents who reported more contact by teachers about positive or neutral topics reported more involvement and greater satisfaction with schools. On the other hand, parents who reported more contact by teachers about negative topics reported better relationships with teachers but lower school satisfaction. This study is important to my study due to the implications that parent-teacher communication may enhance long-term benefits of effective communication and involvement among teachers and parent that in turn may improve student behaviors within the class setting.

These studies I just identified were significant to my study because the findings can be used by the local site leadership team to create workshops for parents, teachers, and administrators to help develop a common understanding of parental involvement and the influence parental involvement can have on student academic progress. The studies mentioned above are important to my research study because findings from these studies provided evidence of implications that parent support is an integral part of school relations. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to maintain contact with parents of students.

Summary

The amalgamation of literature I discussed in Chapter 2 contributed to the justification for my research. As I noted, Louisiana's rate of expelled students exceeds the national rate (Carr, 2011, Talamo, 2017). Decreasing disruptive behaviors in the class setting may be possible through providing in-service training to help teachers learn to use of REBT strategies in the classroom and decrease teacher referrals to the counselor's office, which was the focus of my originally proposed study. The roles of school counselors often fall outside of the direct counseling tasks related to students' personal, academic, and social needs that principals often assign, such as, scheduling, discipline, and administration duties (D'Agati & Szuberta, 2015; Stephens, 2008). In the state of Louisiana, high referrals to the school counselor for student discipline concerns has been problematic for all concerned (Sentell, 2015; Talamo, 2017).

The ways to overcome discipline and classroom management problems that perhaps could lead to a decrease of referrals to the counselor's office, is improving teachers' qualification, regulation at place and structure of the course in the curriculum, giving students punishment, and teachers understanding the reasons behind the problems of students (Erdogan et al., 2010). My original plan for this study was to use Ellis' REBT, and the ABC model, as the theoretical framework and intervention for this project. To enhance readers understanding of the severity of the issue of concern, I also provided a historical report on suspensions and expulsions in the state of Louisiana. However as noted, I had to change my procedures and methods due to lack of teacher involvement in the REBT training. I described my new method and procedures in full detail in Chapter 3.

Teacher report of continuous disruptive behaviors in the classroom, and the impact of teacher referrals on the school counselor, initially generated my focus for my study on interventions that educators could use in the classroom to diminish disruptive student behaviors. Ellis designed his REBT model to help people minimize their emotional disturbances and self-defeating behaviors by replacing irrational thoughts with rational and realistic thoughts (Warren & Baker, 2013). Using subtopics, I provided a description and critique of the research that related to my study variables as originally planned and now includes research on my new variables due to my change in method and procedures. These included: classroom management, teacher performance, exclusionary discipline, referral practice, parental involvement, parental support, and parental contact.

Classroom management is an important aspect of this study due to the difficulty of teachers' attempts to teach when students act out displaying disruptive behaviors. Even though teachers use traditional discipline practices in the classroom setting, educators continue to identify disruptive student behaviors in Southern Louisiana as a significant problem (Erdogan et al., 2010). In addition, I also addressed teacher performance to identify teachers' methods and interactions with students in managing behaviors in their classrooms. Researchers have linked exclusionary discipline, to negative student outcomes that resulted in a loss of instruction time and suspension from the class setting. Referral practice involves referral to the school counselor when teachers can no longer handle disruptive behaviors exhibited by students in the classroom (Bryan et al., 2012). Therefore, I also discussed specified reasons why teachers refer students to the school counselor (Adams, Beshoff, & Harrington, 2007).

Moreover, research has supported that teachers refer students to the school counselor even when the teacher can calm the student in a reasonable amount of time. Therefore, this is why I originally thought that exploring the effectiveness of teachers implementing REBT strategies with the use of the ABC model could prove useful. My research study as previously planned might have been able to identify trends that provide information that may prove helpful in decreasing disruptive behaviors in the class setting. Research supports that training teachers and paraprofessionals in behavior management strategies is an efficient way to reduce referrals to the counselors' office (Polirstok & Gottlieb, 2006). Therefore, my study could have assisted counselors by helping teachers recognizing and mitigate problem behaviors and using REBT ABC interventions to handle the disruptive behavior, which in turn may prevent a referral to the counselors' office. With my change in methods and procedures, my study focused on exploring teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. My present study fills a gap in the literature in that teacher's awareness of their confidence in using behavioral interventions can prove beneficial in that referrals to the counselor's office for disruptive student behaviors are lessened.

In Chapter 3, I discuss my methods for the study. I also provide a rationale for my choices. Further, I discuss my role as the researcher, so that my target audience is aware of any personal and or professional relations between the participants or I, as well as any bias I might have.

Chapter 3: Research Method

In the state of Louisiana, administrators in public schools expel students exhibiting disruptive behavior at five times the national rate, and they issue out-of-school suspensions at twice the rate of the rest of the country (Carr, 2011; Department of Education, Louisiana Believes, 2017a). In Louisiana, school suspensions and expulsions occur at a rate of 10% of all students for in-school suspension and 8% of all students for out-of-school suspensions (Talamo, 2017). In one parish in Louisiana, the suspension rate was 8.7% with out-of-school suspensions at 2% (Louisiana Department of Education, 2010–2011). In one elementary school in Louisiana, in the parish where this current study took place, teachers made 741 student referrals for problem behaviors in the classroom during a single academic year (Talamo, 2017). Just across the river in another parish in Louisiana, the suspension rate was 12.6% and the out-of-school suspension rate was 2% (Louisiana Department of Education, 2010–2011). School counselors are under pressure to assist in the effort to increase student achievement.

School counselors often have enormous caseloads with high student-to-counselor ratios (Gnilka et al., 2015). School counselors are often overworked, overwhelmed, and overburdened (Gnilka et al., 2015; Gündüz, 2012). This can cause school counselors to have feelings of stress, burnout, low self-efficacy, disillusionment, and exhaustion regarding their profession (Bickmore & Curry, 2013; Gnilka et al., 2015). In Louisiana, the ratio is 442 students per every school counselor, which is above the national average and outside the limits recommended by ASCA (2013; College Board Advocacy and Policy Center; 2012). These large caseloads reduce the amount of time that school

counselors can engage in assisting students with developmental, social, and mental health needs (Bryant & Constantine, 2006; Culbreth et al., 2005). These statistics are the catalyst for my study.

The purpose of my originally planned quasi-experimental quantitative study was to compare the treatment and control groups for differences in average count of teacher referrals made to the school counselor for student behavioral issues after a LPC trained the teachers in the treatment group in the REBT ABC model and after these teachers applied these interventions with their disruptive students in their classrooms. As a part of my data analysis, I was going to compare the pre- and postintervention numbers of teacher referrals to the school counselor to assess the effectiveness of training teachers in this model and whether the training impacted school counselors' active caseloads for those assigned to the treatment group students. However, with my change of procedures, the IRB granted permission for me to use a survey method via Survey Monkey where participants filled out a demographic questionnaire and Survey of Behavior Management Practices.

In Chapter 3, I describe the research approach and design for my original study as well as my newly proposed study. I will discuss each in full within their own sections. In the methodology section, I discuss my role as the researcher, the role of my collaborators (external mental health counselors), my rationale for my design, and why I chose the instrumentation that I did. I then discuss the validity, reliability, and ethical considerations for my study. I conclude Chapter 3 with a summary to include my need to file a change of procedure due to not meeting my participant goal.

Original Proposed Study

In this section, I describe my originally intended research design and method. Following that discussion, I discuss the change in procedure and describe the new study I designed. The independent variable for my original study was going to be the group assignment. The treatment group would have been those who participated in the training. The training was intended to be the delivery of a program on the REBT ABC model. The intervention phase of my study would have included the application of this model by teachers with their disruptive students in their classrooms. The ABC model includes a set of techniques that guides teachers so they can help students in becoming more aware of their own thoughts and how these thoughts can affect behavior, emotions, and choices (Padesky, 2007). The dependent variable for my study would have been the frequency of teachers' referrals to the school counselor for students with disruptive behaviors. I would have conducted a comparison of both pre- and postintervention between the treatment and control group.

The covariate I chose for my original study was classroom socioeconomic status, which I was going to measure by how many kids had free or reduced-priced lunch. Per Van Ewijk and Sleegers (2010), socioeconomic status may be an important determinant of academic achievement. In addition, schools with greater ratios of students on free or reduced-priced lunch under Title 1 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act also report higher school counselor caseloads (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012). School counselors who work in schools that have a Title 1 designation, on

average, have 69 more students in their caseload than schools that do not have that designation (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012).

Similarly, Legewie and DiPrete (2012) used a quasi-experimental research design to estimate the gender differences in the causal effect of peer socioeconomic status as an important school resource on test scores. Gender served as a covariate. As surmised by Legewie and DiPrete (2012), measures of male and female performance strongly supported the hypothesis that boys are more sensitive than girls are to school resources that create a learning-oriented environment. My original intent was to measure socioeconomic status as a covariate that included how many kids had free or reduced-priced lunch so that I could control for a variable shown in the research to affect the educational success of low-socioeconomic students who exhibit disruptive behaviors in the classroom.

Research Design for Originally Proposed Study

My original intent for this study was to use a quantitative, quasi-experimental design. The basic intent of a true experimental design is to test the impact of a treatment on an outcome while controlling for all other factors that might influence that outcome (Creswell, 2014). As a form of control, researchers randomly assign individuals to groups or randomly sample participants. One group receives a treatment, or an intervention, and the other group does not, and the researcher can isolate whether it was the treatment that influenced the outcome and not any other confounding factors. After the intervention, data were collected on the outcome variable and then it can be determined how both groups scored and whether the intervention was effective (Creswell, 2014).

While researchers can manipulate an independent variable in a quasi-experimental design, they are unable to instill important controls such as the random sampling and assignment of the participants to the treatment or control conditions because the groups are already formed (Ross, Morrison, & Lowther, 2005). The Louisiana parish school districts assign teachers to their classrooms, so therefore, I would not have been able to assign students to their classrooms or to their teachers; however, I could have randomly assigned teachers to the training. A quasi-experimental design was the only research design that could have allowed me to explore the specific research question for this original study. It was the only appropriate design that could have allowed me to make statements regarding cause and effect under the constraints of the intact groups (e.g., teachers and their classrooms; Creswell, 2014).

Researchers have successfully used the quasi-experimental design to explore variables in other educational research (Castro-Olivo, 2014; Piwowar Thiel, & Ophardt, 2013). For example, Piwowar et al. (2013) used a quasi-experimental design to examine the effectiveness of in-service training of teachers within secondary schools to improve their competencies in classroom management. In addition, Castro-Olivo (2014) used a quasi-experimental study to evaluate social-emotional learning in adolescent Latino English language learners.

At the start of the second semester, I would have obtained a baseline of the number of teacher referrals made during the first semester as a preintervention measure of my dependent variable via archival data. The normal procedure for this in Louisiana schools, exclusive of this study, is that teachers write up the referrals and deliver them to

the principal's office. Then office staff document and store the referrals. I would have used this data at the start of the semester to get a baseline of student discipline referrals from all classes whose teachers were participating in the study.

The LPC would have trained the teachers who were randomly assigned to the treatment group in REBT and the ABC model. Teachers would then have implemented this training with their students over the duration of the semester. At the end of the semester, I would have once again obtained the number of teacher referrals made from teachers in both the treatment and control groups. I would then have conducted a t-test to compare the treatment and control group for differences in average count of referrals. The duration of my study would have lasted over the course of one academic semester.

There is precedence from the research literature that justified my choice of intervention. I discussed this in detail in Chapter 2. Researchers have supported the use of REBT and its efficacy with children and adolescents and have found improvements in students' mood, frustration tolerance, academic performance, coping skills, social skills, and self-concept (Banks & Zionts, 2009). In addition, educators have used REBT in many educational systems with a wide demographic of children (Banks & Zionts, 2009). Chapter 2 included a thorough discussion regarding the use of REBT with children in educational settings.

Methodology for Originally Proposed Study

In this section, I describe the target population for my study and the sampling and participant recruitment procedure I used. I also discuss how I collected the data and provide a step-by-step description of the process regarding how the LPC would have

trained the teachers in the REBT ABC model (Padesky, 1998). Finally, I discuss the threats to my original study's validity and the ethical procedures I would have followed for my original study.

Population for Originally Proposed Study

My target population was teachers in the State of Louisiana. However, my sampling frame for this first intended study was teachers within one parish and their classrooms from grades three and four located in the state of Louisiana. I initially chose teachers with students of this age range because these children are older, and their reading and attention skills are more mature as compared to younger students (Iver, Kochenderfer-Ladd, Eisenberg, & Thompson, 2010). I was not going to use students from grades two and below due to the need to provide graphs and pictures as illustrations to demonstrate target behaviors (Eisenberg et al., 2010). I also chose not to use students in any grades above fourth, because while I had received permission to conduct my study and collect data within the elementary schools of the chosen parish, I had not yet received permission to do so in the middle schools or high schools.

Permission to work with the target population of 3rd and 4th grade teachers took months to obtain, so for the sake of timeliness and the need to finish my dissertation, I chose to move forward with my proposal. If I would have received permission to conduct my study within the older grades prior to the start of my intervention, I would have then sought to amend my proposal and IRB application at that time to include these older students and their teachers. As it turned out, I did have to do just that, which I will describe below.

There are approximately 40 elementary schools in the parish where I had initially received permission to conduct this study (Parish School District, 2017; Parish Public Schools, 2015). A sampling I took of some of these schools showed a range of two to four third grade classes and two to four fourth grade classes per school (Parish School District, 2017). Therefore, the potential sample size was 144 to 288 third and fourth grade teachers and classrooms in the parish (Parish School District, 2017; Chief Academic Officer's Secretary, 2016). Due to the change in procedure, my sampling frame for this study changed to all K-12 teachers within one parish that totaled a number of 2,950 teachers. The teachers were asked to volunteer and participate in completing a demographic questionnaire and the Survey of Behavioral Management Practice via Survey Monkey.

Sample and Sampling Procedures for Originally Proposed Study

My sample for my original study would have included third and fourth grade teachers and their classrooms with a classroom size of a minimum of 20 students across all the public elementary schools in that one Louisiana parish. The sampling unit would have been the entire classroom, and not the individual students. I would have obtained referral data from the school office. I would not have been directly evaluating any students. I would have been using archival data already collected by the school for a purpose other than for my research.

This sampling strategy entailed contacting all potential teachers who taught third and fourth grade in the parish, and who met the criteria for participation, so I could ask them to volunteer for my study. I did advertise my study to these teachers via their

school's email. Per the secretary to the Chief Academic Officer at the Parish School Board, an administrator from the school district sent out the emails to each eligible elementary teacher. This email entailed the details of my original study.

I originally intended to recruit 84 teachers who teach third or fourth grade. These teachers would have been full-time teachers and able to participate in the training session to learn the skills to use REBT ABC model. Teachers who had a foreseeable expectation of being out of the classroom for any part of the year during which the study will take place would not have been eligible to participate. I would also have excluded teacher assistants (TA) from my research study. McVay (1998) stated that teachers take ownership for all students in their classroom. Moreover, teachers and teacher assistants share different responsibilities for supporting students in the classroom (McVay, 1998).

The total sample size would have been 84 teachers who had a classroom size of at least 20 students and who expected to be present in the classroom throughout the semester. This would have provided approximately 1,680 students or 840 students per group. I found the sample size for the number of participants needed by conducting a G*Power analysis for an ANCOVA (G*Power Win_3.1.9.2.). I inputted the variables of a two-tailed test to compute for sample size, an effect size of .50, a power of .80, and an alpha of .05., and degree of freedom n = 1. I chose a medium effect size for the G*Power analysis (Lakens, 2013). Similarly, Lenth (2001) stated that the sample must be of an adequate size that is relative to the goals of the study. Moreover, there was a small amount of research published on the topic of sufficient sample size (Lakens, 2013). Also,

as posited by Seth (2013), the determination of sample size is an essential process to ensure there is adequate statistical power to detect scientifically credible effects.

Procedures for Recruitment and Data Collection for Originally Proposed Study

After I received IRB approval for my original study, the secretary of the Chief Academic Officer of a large parish in Louisiana asked that I contact the office at the School Board and carbon copy the Chief Academic Office so that the approval is on file with each office. In turn, the Chief Academic Officer of the Parish Schools sent out an email to all that parish's elementary schools introducing the study and inviting volunteers to participate.

The expectation was that as teachers e-mailed me and indicated interest in participating in my study, I would have provided them the Survey Monkey website address where participants could complete the informed consent and fill out the demographic questionnaire (Appendix D). At that time, when potential participants accessed survey monkey, he or she would have been asked a screening question to determine eligibility to participate in the study. The screening questions was "Have you ever been trained in or have you used the REBT ABC model?" And, "Have you taught in 3rd and 4th grade in the Parish?" If participants had answered affirmatively, he or she would have been directed to an exit page thanking him or her for participation. If participants answer negatively, he or she would have been directed to the informed consent. I included in the informed consent my contact information in case participants had any questions prior to indicating their consent. The LPC would also have signed a consent form to identify himself as a voluntary trainer.

Participation for Originally Proposed Study

Within the original informed consent, I provided the participants with information about the protection of their rights as participants, the purpose of the study, important contact numbers, and the resources where participants can get free or low-cost counseling should they incur any uncomfortable reactions during their participation in the study. Also, within the consent form, I specified that the LPC who would have provided the training in the REBT ABC model would not be eligible to provide any follow up counseling that participants might request. In addition, the information within the informed consent would have detailed the participants' right to withdraw from the research at any time without penalty. I provided more details about the training of participants in the REBT ABC model below.

Data Collection for Originally Proposed Study

For my original study, I had planned to collect the following demographic variables from the demographic questionnaire as completed by the teacher, that would include the number of students in the classroom who received free lunch or reduced-price lunch, how many students paid full price, whether the teacher was male or female, and what the teacher's ethnicity, age was, and how many years he or she had been teaching. Participants would also have been asked for their e-mail address so that I could contact them after I completed the random selection process, so if they were assigned to the treatment group, I could notify them of the date, time, and location of the REBT training from the LPC.

My plan was that once I had a minimum of 84 teachers interested in participating, I would have engaged in the random selection process to assign a minimum of 42 teachers to the treatment group and a minimum of 42 to the control group. I would have used excel for the random selection process. I would have also placed the names of the participants on a spreadsheet for the selection process. This would have ensured that each teacher had an equal chance of being assigned to either group, thus assuring the randomness of the assignment to the two groups (Creswell, 2014). After the random selection process, I would have contacted teachers in the treatment group via e-mail and provided them with the time and date to participate in the REBT ABC training for the intervention part of the study. The training would have occurred in a central location.

Debriefing and Follow-Up Procedures for Originally Proposed Study

Upon the completion of data analysis, I would have given participants a letter detailing the conclusion of the research via an email sent to the Chief Academic Officer and the School Board office. I also would have provided feedback in the letter along with a number to contact me, the researcher, should there be any questions. Following the study, I would have offered the participants in the control group the same training on the REBT ABC model that was provided to the participants in the treatment group. No other follow- up procedures would have been necessary. Salkin (2010) stated follow-up procedures are an important component of all research. However, after my change of procedures, my follow-up procedure was suspended due to my participants anonymously completing the survey. Therefore, no follow up procedures were needed. Participants simple exited the survey when they finished completing it in Survey Monkey.

Archival Data Collection Procedures for Originally Proposed Study

In the state of Louisiana, information is routinely made available to organizations conducting studies for, or on behalf of, educational agencies or institutions. This policy is to assist researchers to develop, validate, or administer predictive tests; administer student aid programs; or improve instruction if the personally identifiable information is destroyed when no longer needed for the purposes of the study (FERPA, ACT, HIPPA & IDEA 2008). I received permission from the school district's school board to collect archival data from the school to get a baseline of student discipline referrals from all classes. Free or reduced lunch percentages would have been obtained from USDA (2008) website posted for the state of Louisiana. I would have obtained the student referral information from the Chief Academic Officer in a parish of Louisiana. I would have measured free or reduced percentages by how many students had free or reduced-price lunch status in the entire school. According to the USDA (2008), the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced lunch is determined by the maximum family income set at 185% of the Federal Poverty line that is equivalent to approximately $40,793 for a family of four (Appendix E). Due to my change in procedures, I did not use this variable.

Permission from the school district's board would have also allowed me to collect archival data from the elementary schools within the parish. The data point I would have collected was the number of referrals each teacher made to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors in their classroom. The normal school procedure for this is that teachers write up the referrals and deliver them to the principal's office. Then office staff document and store the referrals. I would have collected this data at the end of the

first semester to get a baseline of student discipline referrals from all classes whose teachers are participating in the study. At the end of the second semester, I would have once again collected this data. Then I would have conducted a t-test to compare the treatment and control group for differences in average count of referrals. Given the change in procedures, my final study involved providing an invitation to teachers to volunteer and complete a survey using Survey Monkey and completing the SBMP and a Demographic Questionnaire.

Instruments and Operational Definitions for Originally Proposed Study

Due to the change in my procedures, no training of teachers was necessary. This section will describe what my original intent was for the first study. For my original study, the LPC would have worked with the teachers who were randomly assigned to the treatment group and train them in the REBT ABC model. The training explained in this section was explicitly for the treatment group. The control group would have received the same opportunity to engage in the same training after the conclusion of the data collection. The control group would have been instructed to proceed as they normally would during any given school year. I would have asked both the treatment group and the control group not to discuss this study, nor the REBT ABC model during the duration of the intervention and data collection.

The LPC would have explained the REBT ABC model to teachers using the training methods of Christine A. Padesky, Ph. D, and Kathleen A. Mooney, Ph. D, Padesky and Mooney co-founded The Center for Cognitive Therapy in 1983 and developed training materials that easily illustrates to others how to employ the REBT

ABC model. I describe the steps the LPC would have used to train the teachers below (Padesky & Mooney, 1983) (for an outline of this training, see Appendix H).

The LPC would have used Padesky's six steps in the six-hour training he would have provided to teachers at the training location. I provide a summary of what this training would have looked like, but for replication purposes, researchers should obtain the training disk of Padesky and Mooney (Padesky and Mooney, 1983). For readability, I am leaving the verb tense in present tense; however, please note that this training did not take place due to lack of teacher response to volunteer for the training. These steps the LPC would have taken are as follows:

Step 01. The LPC will instruct the teachers in goal-setting techniques for them to use in the classroom so that the teachers in turn can instruct their students on how to set their own goals and thus decrease their own disruptive behaviors in the classroom setting. These goal-setting techniques will include verbal instructional methods that include Live Model, Verbal Instruction, and Symbolic Model.

Verbal instructions are instructions told to the teachers that will allow the teachers to describe acceptable behaviors to students in detail, to include identifying the behavior to the student that he or she is to display. The teacher may ask a series of questions that combine easy and hard requests. For example, "Do you understand the instructions?" "Do you need me to explain the instructions again?" Why are you not completing the assigned task?" The series of questions increases the frequency of success and can reduce the frustration of the student. In other words, the teacher varies the questions in ways that catch and sustain the student's interest. This method teaches the student to learn how to

use language to make requests and to communicate ideas (Padesky & Mooney, 1983). The teacher uses a verbal instructional method to demonstrate to the student the behaviors the teacher wants the students to display. A Live Model is where the teacher performs the behavior that student should use. For example, the teacher might model the appropriate way to seek attention of others by raising his or her hand and not speaking out of turn until called upon by the teacher. The LPC will explain that teachers can also teach students about using a Symbolic Model. A Symbolic Model is used when students can observe various behaviors through media, such as TV, books, radio, or the Internet.

The LPC training will provide the teachers a list of positive and negative consequences that can follow students' unacceptable behaviors. A positive consequence entails three levels that consist of free and frequent, intermittent, and strong and long-term consequences that teachers use every day in the classroom. Examples of free and frequent positive consequences could be the teacher providing the student with verbal praise or giving stickers. Examples of intermittent positive consequences could be sending a positive note home to parents praising the student or giving the student a privilege in the classroom for the day (e.g., extra computer time). Finally, examples of strong and long- term positive consequences can include scheduling a field trip or naming a student of the week (Peabody & Vanderbilt, 2016). A negative consequence is an undesirable outcome given to the student by the teacher when a student engages in inappropriate behavior. Just as with positive consequences, teachers can also choose a level of negative consequence to give to the student ranging from the least-intrusive

(giving the student a rule reminder) to the most intrusive consequence (e.g., parent contact or an office referral) (Peabody &Vanderbilt, 2016).

The LPC will also instruct the teachers in the treatment group to use structure and bonding. MacAulay (1990) indicated that there is a need for teachers to structure the classroom in such a way to allow the teacher to address the academic, social, and emotional needs of his or her students. In other words, the physical environment of the classroom can improve the learning environment and prevent behavior problems before they occur (Aivais, 2005).

Structure. A structured learning environment entails a clearly defined space within the classroom where teachers instruct students on how to exhibit acceptable behaviors. Educators define structure as how the teacher arranges the physical environment of the classroom. The physical environment of the classroom can improve the learning environment and can prevent student behavior problems before they occur (i.e., how the students are seated and where the students are in relation to one another) (Trussell, 2008). In addition, Trussell (2008) posited that the physical arrangement of the classroom could affect the behavior of students and teachers. For example, the teacher needs to see every study and every student needs to be able to see the teacher (Trussell, 2008).

Also, as a part of structure, the teacher and student will write a group contract adopting acceptable classroom rules and procedures and periodically review the rules and procedures (Saveski & Brown, 2014). Both the students and the teachers will help to determine these classroom rules. Per Saveski and Brown (2014), students follow

directions when they are aware of expectations and most times will remain on task or ask for clarification from teachers or their peers. The teacher will use verbal reprimands when misbehavior by the student occurs, such as “Yvette, if you continue to talk out of turn, you will lose your recess privilege,” or “John, should you continue to get out of your seat without permission, your thirty minutes of computer time will be only 15 minutes today” (Classroom Management, 2007; Saveski & Brown, 2014; Teacher Vision, 2009). The physical arrangement of the classroom should also be reflective of the diverse cultural and linguistic characteristics of the students in the classroom and be consistent with specific learner needs (e.g., Denise may not be able to see the board well even with her wearing eyeglasses or Elijah may not be able to hear the instructions of the teacher because he sits in the back of the classroom).

In terms of teachers providing structure, Padesky indicated that the therapist (or in this case the teacher) needed to clarify points when working with students. For example, the teacher should record a mini summary of what a student says during interactions. The teacher should then look for a connection between the student’s problems and prioritize what is most important, be that the student’s problem, or what is disruptive about the students’ behavior. Padesky also asks teachers to refrain from judging and to collaborate by allowing student to choose what he or she is willing to work on (i.e., teachers should remain consistent by saying (for example): “Jane, you can work on the assignment or go to time out” (DeSisto, 1996).

Bonding. Cummings (2002) posited that bonding is when two people have a mutual relationship. On the first day of the semester, to foster bonding, teachers should

greet their students as they come through the door with a handshake and a few words of encouragement. Such encouragement words are “I’m glad you are here.” “Your input is appreciated.” “You can do it!”

The LPC will instruct the teachers on how to write each student a letter while in class. The teachers will place a large Manilla envelope at the corner of their desk in view of students. The teacher will write each student a letter that is in an envelope with a blank sheet of paper attached with directions to place response to the teacher’s letter in the Manilla envelope that is on teacher’s desk. This assures that the teacher receives a response from each student. This will aid the teacher and his or her students to get to know each other better (Cummings, 2002). A supportive and caring environment is an asset in the classroom to help motivate students to achieve and engage in school activities. These activities will help ensure that the classroom is structured in such a way as to allow the teacher to address the academic, social, and emotional needs of his or her students (MacAulay, 1990).

Padesky (1993) posited that when the teacher gives the student empathy, this can also facilitate bonding. Empathy is demonstrated when a teacher verbally reflects the feelings of the student. Therefore, teachers can facilitate bonding when the teacher greets the student warmly, listens, and then shows the student empathy by reflecting the student’s feelings. However, when the teacher shows empathy, the teacher should use more action words by saying, for example, “I’m listening, and I hear that you feel frustrated right now.” “What happened?” “How can I help?” (Gerdes & Segal, 2009).

Using bonding and structure together. Bonding and structure are the act of building rapport/trust with students that includes looking at a relationship from a bond (a sense of caring), and social factors (teacher and student coming to an agreement on what goals to achieve). The LPC will identify, define, and demonstrate structure and bonding to the teachers in the training, and he will explain why both structure and bonding collectively can assist in setting realistic and attainable goals for students (Padesky & Mooney, 1983). Through discussion, the LPC will instruct teachers to alter their organizational patterns (seating arrangement) in the areas where the teachers think the modes of communication are unhelpful between the students and the teacher. Examples of unhelpful interactions could be when students: (a) frequently interrupt, (b) do not respond to what the teacher or what other students have said, (c) use inattentive body language, or (d) engage in behaviors that are abusive and neglectful.

For example, Savage (1999) indicated that the physical arrangement of the classroom affects the behavior of both the students and teachers. Additionally, Savage (1999), stated that teacher-focused activities may entail students' desks lined up in straight rows facing the front of the classroom; whereas, student-focused activities might have students' desks in a semi-circle and might include the rotation of learning stations around the classroom. This would allow for more student engagement. The creation of this type of classroom structure would be conducive of more social interactions' students need (Savage, 1999).

Vetare (2001) posited that when the structure of the group changes, the position of current members can change, and this could lead to a lack of bonding. For example, when

new students join the class, there is a need for current students to re-establish their role within the new group of students. Therefore, the LPC will help teachers do the following:

- Organize their class in a way that allows students to recognize the teacher oversees the class.
- Organize the class to accommodate a variety of activities throughout the day that meet the teachers' instructional goals (Savage, 1999).
- Identify ways in which teachers can recognize the consequences of students' basic psychological needs and whether they are or are not being met.

Per Schaps (2005) students are likely to demonstrate the following when schools meet student's basic psychological needs (belongingness). These needs are met through a series of questions asked by the student, which include: "Will I make friends here? Will, I be popular?" Other questions to satisfy students' needs can entail questions such as: "Will my teachers like me? Will they care about me?" Students are also likely to question: "Will I be able to do the work here? Will, I be smart enough?" In many cases, students question if they will be safe or bullied (Schaps, 2005).

- Become active in school (school bonding)
- Act in accordance with school goals and values
- Develop social skills and understanding
- Contribute to the school and the community

Through the workshop training, the LPC will emphasize to teachers working with students is not just about problem solving. It is also about teachers helping students figure out what makes a difference in their lives. Additionally, the LPC will empower the

teachers to provide frequent summaries, both verbal and written, when students ask direct questions to assure effective communication. The LPC will ask the teachers to self-evaluate their progress and to seek additional feedback from the LPC should feedback is necessary.

Step 02. The LPC trainer will instruct the teachers to use the Simple, Attainable, Measurable, Immediate, and Controlled (SAMIC) model to formulate goals with the students. The LPC trainer will use role-plays to help teachers practice creating realistic and doable goals. The LPC trainer will show teachers how to figure out goals and how to help students identify what to change. The LPC will instruct teachers on how to set clear goals (e.g., "Wayne will seek out a responsible adult to handle conflict in the school setting for four out of every five conflicts" or "Yolanda will accept criticism in the class setting and she will reduce her disruptive behavior (arguing with other students) from five days per week to three days per week when another student criticizes her. Yolanda's will demonstrate her successful acceptance of criticism by looking at the student who criticized her and replying "okay," instead of arguing with the other student" (Voltz, Snyder, & Sterba 2009).

The LPC will also engage the teachers in role-play to help them identify dilemmas such as when students' have overwhelming problems or long-standing recurrent problems. The LPC will emphasize that goal setting in a continuous and ongoing process. The LPC will instruct the teachers how to help students set both short-term and long-term goals.

Step 03. The LPC will provide an explanation and training to teachers regarding using mid-intervention goals and end-intervention goals. These are goals that teachers use when students are having trouble complying and when previous interventions are not being effective. In other words, teachers observe that students are not achieving a percentage of their goals and this non-compliance could be due to "other" issues that the child is experiencing.

Per Padesky (1993), goals need to be specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and timely. A specific goal should be one where there is a greater chance of a student achieving his or her goal. The teachers will ask six "W" questions that should be answered for a specific goal:

"Who: Who is involved?

"What: What do I want to accomplish?

"Where: Identify the location (School)

"When: Establish a time frame.

"Which: Identify requirements and constraints.

"Why: Specific reasons, purpose or benefits of accomplishing the goal.

Teachers will use a measurable goal to measure progress. Teachers will identify students' progress towards the attainment goal that allows opportunity for the student to stay on track, reach target dates, and experience the exhilaration of achievement that inspires students to continue effort required to reach the goal.

Questions teachers ask to determine if the goal is measurable are: How much? How many? How will I know when it is accomplished?

Teachers will choose attainable goals that are most important to students. Students develop the attitude, ability, skills, and compacity to reach them. Teachers will establish a time frame that allows steps to be carried out and teachers will list goals that help to build student's self-image. Moreover, the development of traits and personality allows individuals to possess them (Padesky, 1993).

To be realistic, the goal must represent an objective toward which students are both willing and able to work. As suggested by Padesky (1993) a goal can be both high and realistic, however teachers must be sure that the goal represents substantial progress. Last, a timely goal should be grounded within a time frame. Teachers must be specific when setting the timeframe. Per Padesky (1993) with no time fame there is no sense of urgency.

At the beginning of the semester, both the teacher and student set goals with the intention of completing the goal. During mid-intervention, students may encounter stressors beyond their control that interferes with completing their goals. In other words, dilemmas arise that the student is not capable of handling. A dilemma is when the student and teacher set a goal, but events cause deferment in completing the goal.

The end of intervention goal is when the teacher encourages and empowers the student to continue to work on the original goal and to stay on track in the mist of other problems that arise. In addition, end intervention goals are when teachers ask the student to do a summary about what the student felt had been helpful during the time, he or she attempted to reach goal. The teacher can then help the student anticipate what type of problems the student thinks he or she may encounter in the future. The teacher will ask

students to identify skills that they can use to help them to cope with anticipated occurrences.

The LPC will also instruct the teachers to identify what the teachers are doing with their students that was or was not helpful in terms of disruptive student behaviors.

Step 04. The LPC will instruct teachers how to "Mind the Gap" and engage in nonjudgmental behavior (Padesky, 1993). The gap is the area between where the student has a set goal and when the teacher needs to impose the need for the student to set a higher goal (Padesky, 1993). Therefore, the teacher is to review, update or create new goals when it is evident that the student has achieved previously set goal. The LPC will instruct teachers how to portray a non-judgmental demeanor as evidenced by teachers refraining from blaming students, or embarrassing students, by calling out the student's name or by identifying observation of the students' negative behavior before the entire class. The LPC will instruct teachers how to give direct and clear information and to problem solve any difficulties (Padesky, 1993).

Per Padesky, teachers need to be taught to identify students' classroom routines and instruct students what to do as an expected behavior before a student engages in a negative behavior. For example, teachers can instruct students that when their assignments are complete, but other students are still not finished, that the student should engage in a silent activity (e.g., reading).

Also, the LPC will instruct the teachers to identify positive behaviors (e.g., students completing work in a timely manner, not interrupting others, raising hands to answer questions and not blurting out answers) as frequently as teachers notice problem

behaviors (e.g., students interrupting others, failing to answer questions, or disturbing others). Teachers will use a positive behavior list to remind students of positive behaviors that they will display in the school context.

Step 05. The LPC will instruct teachers to use the appropriate body language by demonstrating ways the teacher should communicate with the student. The LPC will instruct the teachers to lean in toward the student, have a relaxed body posture, make good eye contact with the student when it is culturally appropriate for the student, and engage in listening behaviors as evidenced by the teacher tilting his or her head and by using a soft vocal tone. The objective is to accept the student's goals and not push the student to work on the teacher's expected goals.

Step 06. The LPC will also instruct teachers to do a summary of what is helpful and to anticipate what kind of problems may occur when using REBT ABC model in the classroom. Furthermore, the LPC will empower teachers to also set goals for themselves to indicate that goal setting for the self may help to improve character, and help teachers to understand truthfulness, perseverance, respect, and patience (Padesky, 2007).

Operationalization of Each Variable for Originally Proposed Study

Dependent variables are defined as variables that depends on the independent variables and are described as the outcomes or results of the influence of the independent variables (Creswell, 2016). My dependent variable would originally have been the change in number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruption from first to second semester post intervention.

Data Analysis Plan for Originally Proposed Study

My original plan was that at the end of the second semester or school year, the schools' office staff would again total the number of student discipline referrals. I would have used IBM SPSS (2010) to conduct an ANCOVA analysis to compare the treatment and control groups for differences in average count of referrals that students received from teachers between the experimental group, whose teachers received REBT ABC model, and the control group whose teachers did not. The covariate data that I would have collected would have been the information on classroom socioeconomic status. I would have measured this by the total number of students receiving free lunch, reduced priced lunch, or paid full price for lunch via reports provided by school personnel.

Data Screening and Cleaning for Originally Proposed Study

Data screening and cleaning is the process of checking for missing responses, evaluating the curve of the sampled data, and meeting the assumptions of the data analysis. My dependent variable would originally have been the change in number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruption from first to second semester post intervention. Therefore, I would not have been collecting any data from surveys other than the demographic questionnaire. Also, no other data cleaning or screening would have been necessary for my originally proposed study.

I would have used an ANCOVA to analyze the difference in the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor. Field (2013) implicated that ANCOVA has important considerations that includes independence of the covariate and treatment effect, meaning that the covariate should not be different across the groups in the analysis. The

second assumption was homogeneity of regression slopes, that would indicate a regression fit to the entire data set, ignoring to which group a person belongs, and assumes that the overall relationship is true for all groups of participants. Therefore, should the relationships between the dependent variable and covariate differ across the groups the overall regression model would be inaccurate; thus, indicating it does not represent each group. Moreover, ANCOVA helps to exert stricter experimental control by taking account of confounding variables to give a 'purer' measure of effect of the experimental manipulation (Field, 2013). In my originally proposed study, the independent variable and the covariate were independent of each other and there would be no interaction between the independent variable and covariates.

My covariate would have been the free or reduced lunch of the school, which is the measure of how many children have free or reduced-price lunch status in that classroom. I would not have collected individual student data regarding this status. I would have used IBM's SPSS software to run my analysis. I included the covariate of SES, because researchers have found that student low SES is correlated to increased student behavioral issues (Huang et al., 2015), increased school counselor caseloads, (College Board Advocacy and Policy Center, 2012) and low SES impacts a child's ability to learn and succeed in an academic environment (Milne & Plourde, 2006; Sambonmatsu, Kling, Duncan, & Brooks, 2008). Therefore, it was important for me to control for this variable to determine if there was a true difference between the treatment and control group due to the intervention and not because some classrooms contain a greater number of lower SES students.

Threats to External Validity for Originally Proposed Study

The types of threats to external validity in my originally proposed study included the interaction effects of selection and treatment and the interaction of history and treatment (Creswell, 2014). When there are narrow characteristics of participants in the experiment, this can cause interaction effects of selection and treatment (Ferguson, 2004). When this occurs, the researcher may not be able to generalize to individuals who do not have the characteristics of study participants. Ferguson (2004) stated that generalizing across populations includes applying findings to areas such as settings, times, or populations that are not representative in the sample. In situations where the sample is not representative of the target population, findings may pertain only to the sample of the study. Therefore, in my study, the results of my originally proposed study might not have generalized outside of 3rd and 4th grade classrooms, nor outside of the Louisiana parish.

A second threat to external validity of the original study might have been the interaction of history and treatment. Results of an experiment are time-bound, and the researcher cannot generalize the results to past or future situations. Per Creswell (2014), because time passes during an experiment, events can occur that unduly influence the outcome beyond the experimental treatment. In this instance, I could have both the experimental and control groups experience the same external events. In addition, I might have needed to replicate this study later to determine if the same results occur as in the earlier time. Due to the characteristics of the setting of participants (in one State) I cannot generalize to individuals in other settings. Therefore, I need to conduct additional

experiments in new settings (other states) to see if the same results occur as in the initial setting.

Potential threats to the internal validity of the original study could be mortality, in that participants could have dropped out of the study during the experiment (Creswell, 2014). In this instance, the outcomes would have thus remained unknown for these individuals. To address that threat, I would have recruited a larger sample than needed to account for dropouts (Creswell, 2014). Another issue that could have possibly arose is a reactive effect of experimental arrangements, which is when participants in the control and experimental groups communicate with each other about the treatment or intervention. Reactive effects of experimental arrangements are often difficult to generalize from lab settings, because participants' performances can change when attention is paid to them (Salkin, 2010). The possible communication between the treatment and control groups could have influenced how both groups score on the outcomes. To control for this threat, I would have tried to keep the two groups as separate as possible during the experiment by requesting participants did not discuss the study until after it was completed.

Other potential threats to this study could be construct or statistical conclusion validity. This potential could have arisen if I would have drawn inaccurate inferences from the data because of inadequate statistical power or the violation of statistical assumptions (Garcia-Perez, 2012). There are two different aspects to power analysis. One is to calculate the necessary sample size for a specified power and the other is to calculate the power when given a specific sample size (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner & Lang, 2009). I

would have made sure to verify the appropriate statistical power by running a G*Power analysis and I would have made sure the data had not violated the assumptions of the test. McHugh (2008) shared that power is a key factor in the researcher being able to draw correct conclusions from sample data. G*Power 3 provides effect size calculators and graphic options, it supports both a distribution-base and a design-base input mode, and it offers all types of power analyses (Faul, Buchner, Erdfelder & Lang (2009).

Ethical Procedures for Originally Proposed Study

Resnik (2011) indicated that there were several reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical norms in research, namely norms promote the aims of research, whereas ethical standards promote the values that are essential to collaborative work. Researchers need to protect their research participants, develop a trust with them, promote the integrity of research, guard against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on their institutions, and cope with new challenging problems. In addition, Resnik (2011) emphasized that stakeholders are most likely to fund research projects if they trust the quality and integrity of research.

Holzemeer (2010) listed ethical principles that guide research to include beneficence (doing good), non-malfeasance (doing no harm), fidelity (creating trust), justice (being fair), veracity (telling the truth), confidentiality (protecting or safeguarding participants' identifying information). The protection of human subjects, under the Office of Research Integrity (ORI) (ORI, 2007), oversees and directs Public Health Service (PHS) research integrity activities on behalf of the Secretary of Health and Human Services. Moreover, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) lists ethical issues

researchers need to consider when conducting research. The FDA identified these issues as regulatory research integrity activities. Section 3f of the protection of human rights asserted that the first issue begins with the informed consent (ORI, 2007). This section indicates the need for researchers to fully inform participants about the experiment in which they participate.

Accessing Participants for Originally Proposed Study

For my original study, I received permission from the Chief Academic Officer of parish schools in the state of Louisiana to gain access to participants and data. This letter gave me permission to solicit teachers for recruitment purposes and to keep track of student school referrals. Data collection was through the office of Assessment and Support.

My university's IRB for Ethical Standards in Research is responsible to ensure research complies with both the university's ethical standards and the U.S. Federal regulations. Therefore, "researchers need to have their research plans reviewed by the IRB so that participants are not put at risk and vulnerable populations are respected" (i.e., minors who are under the age of 19, cognitively impaired participants, victims, persons with neurological impairments, pregnant women or fetuses, prisoners, and individuals with acquired immune deficiency syndrome [AIDS]) (Creswell, 2014, p. 89). Creswell also stated that the IRB can review the extent to which the research being proposed would subject individuals to risk. I secured IRB approval before I began to recruit any participants or collect any data. I was granted IRB approval in March of 2018. My IRB approval number is 3-05-18-0047454. Furthermore, I waited for the IRB to approve all of

my changes in procedures prior to implementing any changes. I will discuss each change of procedure in depth in Chapter 4.

Ethical Concerns Related to Recruitment for Originally Proposed Study

Following IRB approval of my originally proposed study, I asked the school district personnel to identify and collect the names of potential teachers. The Chief Academic Officer of Louisiana schools agreed to send out an email to all teachers in grades three and four throughout the selected parish to solicit volunteers who showed interest in participating in the study. It is imperative that researchers follow ethical codes and make ethical considerations on behalf of each participant in a study (ACA Code of Ethics, 2014, Section G.1.c. Precautions to Avoid Injury). As such, public school teachers were not in a category of a vulnerable population. I conducted my research per the techniques listed in the National Institute of Health training on the ethical treatment of human subjects to include using measures for confidentiality. Due to my change in procedures the IRB approved my request to recruit participants by allowing the school principals to post my flyer in the teachers' lounge to advertise my study. No principals were provided with information about who did or did not participate. I did not collect any identifying information on the participants.

Ethical Concerns Related to Data Collection for Originally Proposed Study

For my original study, my intent was to use secondary data. Secondary data is existing information that the school district has collected for purposes other than for that study. The Chief Academic Officer of the schools in the parish where this study would have taken place would have de-identified the data in terms of identification of students

by removing the names or any other identifying information, such as the name of the school from all data files. Also, I would not have reported any teachers' names so as to maintain the confidentiality of the participants. The schools' principals, assistant principals, or the school counselors from each school would have provided the data concerning students' behavioral referrals, and those individuals would have submitted it to the Chief Academic Officer of the Parish Schools for me to collect.

To address the issue of participant dropout in my study, ethically, I would have respected the participant's right to withdraw using the principle of respect for persons, as written in the voluntary informed consent to participate in research. I would also have used more participants to exceed my needed sample size to accommodate any participant attrition. In addition, if there had been an aversive event, I would have reported it to my chair and the IRB, and I would have provided the teacher with a list of resources whereby he or she could have received counseling assistance if needed. My study went from a training to a survey. Therefore, I did not have to worry about attrition with my survey because data was collected all at one time. Also, with the survey there was less risk to participants.

Plan for the Treatment of Data for My Originally Proposed Study

Per the American Counseling Association (2014) Code of Ethics, Section G.2.i. Research Records Custodian, "As appropriate, researchers prepare and disseminate to a colleague or records custodian a plan for the transfer of research data in the case of their incapacitation, retirement, or death" (p. 16). The person who will secure my data in the event of my death will be Dr. Donnie Underwood. After gathering participants'

responses, I entered the responses on a spreadsheet in an SPSS file. All data were anonymous. I did not collect any identifying information from participants. As per ethical guidelines, I will keep all data and confidential information stored in a locked filing cabinet. I will dispose of the data after five years. Only my chair and my methodologist had access to my data. For my newly proposed study, responses received from teachers using Survey Monkey, an online survey tool, will be kept confidential with a protected password that only my chair and my methodologist has access.

Research Design and Rationale for Newly Proposed Study

Due to the change in procedure the new purposes for the study were as follows: Explore teachers' perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom. Explore the relationship of teachers' confidence to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

My independent variables were age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teacher perception of support from parents of students, and teacher perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student. The first dependent variable for this newly proposed study was the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor as measured the demographic questions: "How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues?" An additional dependent variable was the participants' scores from the Survey of Behavior Management Practices.

RQ1: Do age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parents have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

$H_0$1: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do not have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

H_a1: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parent, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's do have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

RQ2: Do the age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive

student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues?

$H_0$2: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do not have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

H_a2: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

RQ3: Do participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices questionnaire have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

$H_0$3: Participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices do not have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

H_a3: Participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices questionnaire do have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

The dependent variables on the new study were the scores on three subscales of the SBMP: How confident are you in using this strategy? How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior? How often have you used this strategy?

The variables were measured using an ordinal scale. I assigned numbers to the questions to reflect ordering in regard to the proposed question. The SBMP was developed by Reupert and Woodcock (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). The scale was developed to assess pre-service teachers' frequency, confidence, and effectiveness of using various behavior management strategies. The survey is mostly used as a tool to answer questions that included items that reflect a wide variety of behavior management strategies ranging from prevention through to corrective strategies, as well as

instructional practices based on an extensive review of behavior management textbooks and research articles (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). The SBMP items are rated on a 5-point scale with the anchors: 1 = “Not at all” 3 = “Somewhat” and 5 = “Extremely”. The authors did not give anchors for numbers two and four. Thus, the higher the participants’ score, the more frequent, confident, and successful the teacher perceived his or her behavior management.

Moreover, I used the online survey research tool Survey Monkey. Survey Monkey is an online survey development cloud-based software service company founded by Finley and Finley (Finley & Finley, 1999). Survey Monkey allowed me to collect my data. Survey Monkey provided a survey completion progress bar so that the total number of my survey questions completed were easily read via the Internet. The questionnaire was an anonymous questionnaire which prevented identification of individual participants responses (Waclaswki, 2013).

Methodology for Newly Proposed Study

Due to lack of participation from teachers for the training in the original study, the final research design became a quantitative survey. Bandura’s (1993) theory of self-efficacy as the theoretical framework for the study because this theory helped explain findings regarding teachers’ perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. I was then able to explore the relationship between teacher self-efficacy to employ behavioral strategies with students in their classroom and

the number of referrals teachers then made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

Population for Newly Proposed Study

Due to the change in procedure, the sampling frame for this study changed to all K-12 teachers within the entire state of Louisiana, totaling 49,196 teachers, with one parish responding, totaling 2,950 teachers. Teacher were asked to participate by completing the demographic questionnaire as well as the SBMP survey.

Sample and Sampling Procedures for Newly Proposed Study

Due to the change in procedures, the new sampling strategy became a convenience strategy given the voluntary nature of the study among teachers who were willing to participate. Therefore, the sample unit included all teachers who taught K-12 grades in the State of Louisiana; however, only one parish responded as principals in one parish agreed to post the flyer.

The study involved providing an invitation to teachers (via the Parish Chief Academic Officer granting permission for school principals to post the invitation flyer in the teachers' lounge), and by participants completing the brief 31 question SBMP survey and a demographic questionnaire via Survey Monkey. For the final study, G*Power was utilized to calculate the needed sample size to conduct a linear multiple regression analysis with five predictors with an alpha of .05, a power of .80, and a medium effect size. The results indicated that a sample size of 84 participants were needed. Due to the change of procedure, power analysis was used to identify the appropriate sample size that involved considering the level of statistical significance for the alpha, the amount of

power desired in the study presented as high, medium, or low for the statistical hypothesis with sample data when the null hypothesis is false, and the effect size that is the expected difference in the means expressed in standard deviation units. The values were set for the three factors (e.g., alpha = .05, power = .80, and effect size = 50. The survey was planned so that the size of each group provided the greatest sensitivity that the effect on the outcome actually was due to the manipulation in the study (Creswell, 2014).

Procedure for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection for Newly Proposed Study

After the change in procedures, the study involved providing an invitation to teachers (via the Chief Academic Officer granting permission for school principals to post the invitation flyer in the teachers' lounge). Teachers were able to complete the survey voluntarily by accessing the brief 31 question SBMP and a demographic questionnaire, through Survey Monkey. Survey Monkey is an online survey developed cloud-based software that is founded by Finley and Finley (Finley & Finley,1999). The company provides free, customizable surveys, free and paid plans for individual users that includes data analysis and the ability to use screening questions (SurveyMonkey-About Us, 2015). The new screening questions for the study were: "Are you a full-time teacher in the state of Louisiana in a public K-12 school?" and "Do you agree to participate in this study?" In addition, the teachers were informed that they were to answer the survey and demographic questions only one time. Furthermore, my procedure for providing informed consent did not change from my originally proposed study. When

participants answered all questions, they were then directed to a thank you and an exit page. No follow up procedures were needed. Data was collected only at this one time.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs for Newly Proposed Study

Dependent variables are defined as variables that depends on the independent variables and are described as the outcomes or results of the influence of the independent variables (Creswell, 2016). The dependent variable for the newly proposed study was the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor as measured the demographic questions: “How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues?” An additional dependent variable was participants’ scores from the Survey of Behavior Management Practices.

An independent variable is defined as variables that cause, influence, or affect outcomes (Creswell, 2016). The independent variables were age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teacher perception of support from parents of students, and teacher perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student. The dependent variables were the teachers’ scores on the SBMP and the number of referrals that teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral issues.

The predictor variables for the newly proposed research study were teacher perceived parental support, teacher perceived ability to contact parents as measured by the demographic questions: “How much support do parents with children at your school give to the teaching staff?” and “How easy or difficult is it to get in contact with parents of disruptive students?” Variables were measured using an ordinal scale. Teachers

responded to their use of how often they used the strategy by selecting from the category of 1 = “Not at all” 3 = “Somewhat” and 5 = “Extremely”. Participants rated their confidence in using the strategy on the same scale. Participants indicated their success in using the strategy in managing the behavior by selecting from a category of 1 = “Very Easy” 2 = “Easy” 3 =“ Difficult” 4 = “Very Difficult” and 5 = NA, I do not try to get in contact with parents. Teachers reported their confidence in using the strategy

“How often have you used this strategy? “

“How confident are you in using this strategy?”

“How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior?”

The Survey of Behavior Management Practices. The SBMP was developed by Reupert and Woodcock (2010). The scale was developed to assess teacher education students’ frequency, confidence, and effectiveness of various behavior management strategies. The survey is mostly used as a tool to answer questions that included items that reflect a wide variety of behavior management strategies ranging from prevention through to corrective strategies, as well as instructional practices based on an extensive review of behavior management textbooks and research articles (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). I had permission from the developers to use the test.

The SBMP items are rated on a 5-point scale with the anchors: 1 = “Not at all” 3 = “Somewhat” and 5 = “Extremely”. The authors did not specify labels for anchors 2 and 4. Thus, the higher the participants’ score, the more frequently teachers perceived they used the named behavioral management strategy, the more confident they felt in implementing the strategy, and the more confident they felt in using it.

The SBMP consists of 100 questions and takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. Sample questions on the SBMP are “How often do you verbally acknowledge positive behavior?” “How confident are you in using this strategy?” “How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior?” “How often have you ignored inappropriate behavior?” “How confident are you in using this strategy?” “How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior?” “How often have you contacted students’ parents?” “How confident are you in using this strategy?” “How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior?” During my research, I found several articles that used the SBMP to include Phillips (Phillips, 2017).

For example, Woodcock and Reupert (2013) conducted a study to identify the classroom management strategies that teachers would employ. Woodcock and Reupert also measured teachers’ confidence in employing the strategies and the effectiveness of the strategies. Participants included 205 pre-service teachers enrolled in either a four-year teacher training program (N = 104) or a one-year teacher training program (N = 101) at a university in New South Wales, Australia. Gender of participants were identified as (N = 18, 18%) male and (N = 82, 82% female, who were either undertaking a Bachelor of Education (Primary) degree (n = 104, 104%), which prepares graduates to teach over four years, or a Diploma of Education (Primary) course (n = 101, 101%)), which prepares graduates to teach in one year. The authors reported that the participants were all from Australia, however, the authors did not report any other demographic information, but did report frequency reliability reports. Both courses prepared pre-service teachers to teach children ranging in age from 5 to 12. Reupert and Woodcock reported that the most

commonly reported behavior management strategies were initial correction strategies (M = 3.65, SD = .66), and rewards (M =3.52, SD =.95). Initial correction strategies and rewards were reportedly used significantly more than prevention strategies ($t = 8.258$, $p < .001$; $t = 6.508$, $p < .001$ respectively), and later correction strategies ($t = 26.101$, $p < .001$; $t = 21.789$, $p < .001$ respectively). More specifically, 'saying the student's name as a warning' (M = 4.23, SD = .89), 'use of non-verbal body language' (M = 4.18, SD = .80) and 'moved yourself closer to the student' (M = 3.93, SD = .89), were most commonly reported strategies by pre-service teachers. The researchers reported that pre-service teachers were most confident in using initial correction strategies (M = 3.87, SD =.65) and reward strategies (M = 3.75, SD = 1.05). Pre-service teachers were significantly more confident in using both initial corrections strategies and reward strategies than they were using preventative ($t =7.025$, $p < .001$; $t= 6.929$, .001 respectively), and, later correction strategies ($t =22.170$, $p < .001$; $t =20.330$, $p < .001$ respectively). More specifically, it was the 'use of non-verbal body language' (M =4.16, SD=.90), 'saying the student's name as a warning (M =4.12, SD=.91), and 'moved yourself closer to the student'(M = 4.10, SD =.90), that pre-service teachers were most confident using.

Pre-service teachers reported that preventative and reward strategies were the most effective of all strategies when managing student behavior (M = 3.69, SD = .62 and M = 3.65, SD = .99). Pre-service teachers were significantly more effective in using preventative and reward strategies than they were in using initial corrective strategies ($t = 4.356$, $p < .001$; $t = 4.350$, $p < .001$), later correction strategies ($t = 15.861$, $p < .001$; $t = 15.085$, $p < .001$). The researchers reported that it was the 'establish a regular routine' (M

= 4.19, SD =.90), ‘verbally acknowledge positive behavior’ (M = 4.05, SD = .82), ‘taught appropriate behavior as part of a lesson’ (M = 3.83, SD = .91), and, ‘implemented a regular system to deal with transition’ (M = 3.86, SD = 1.05) that were the most effective strategies.

The authors concluded that those teachers who received more training employed preventative strategies significantly more than those with less university training. Woodcock and Reupert (2013) shared that the pre-service teachers in a four-year program reported feeling more confident in using the strategies. The researchers revealed that by using factor analysis, the items on the scale were categorized into three subscale variables. The authors shared that two extraction criteria were used: eigenvalues more than one and interpretability once.

The authors reported that preventive strategies consisted of tactics that are considered to prevent behavioral issues from arising (i.e., establishing routines, seating arrangements, and class rules). Woodcock and Reupert (2013) reported that mild or low intrusive corrective strategies such as proximity control, signalling (for example, giving quiet or attention signals), and re-directive statements made up the initial corrective subscale. Strategies such as the use of time out and behavior contracts were more intrusive strategies to correct the misbehavior were formed by the researchers to create the later corrective strategies subscale variable. Reupert and Woodcock indicated that internal reliability analyses all resulted in acceptable. For example, the authors reported that in the area of rewards the frequency reliability analyses were (r = .73, 3) confidence reliability (r = .71, 3) and the success reliability (r - .74, 3). Prevention frequency

reliability analyses results were (r = .78, 7) , confidence reliability (r = .76, 7) success reliability (r = .76, 7). The initial correction analyses results were frequency (r = .76, 8) confidence (r = .77, 8) and success (r = .76, 8). The later correction analyses results were (r = .80, 6) confidence reliability (r = .83, 6) and success reliability (r = .85, 6). (r = > .70) that represented scores of reliability for all of the subscales created from the factor analysis. The authors also reported that of the original 31 strategies, seven did not load substantially onto either of the dimensions and were deleted from subsequent analysis.

Reupert and Woodcock (2015) conducted another quantitative study to examine primary student teachers' use, confidence, and success in various classroom management strategies. The researchers proposed three interrelated research questions to frame their study. The questions were:

> What classroom management strategies do student teachers report using at the start of teacher training?" " How confident are they in these various strategies?" " How successful do they find these strategies?"
>
> "What classroom management strategies do student teachers report using at the end of teacher training?" "How confident are they in these various strategies?" "How successful do they find these strategies?"
>
> "Is there a difference between the use, confidence and success in the classroom management strategies that student teachers employ at the beginning and at the end of teacher training?"

The researchers reported that their participants were primary student teachers enrolled in a one-year teacher training Postgraduate Certificate of Education (PGCE)

program at a large English university that included 148 eligible student teachers from Australia, that were invited to participate in the study. The authors did not report demographic information such as teachers age etc. Reupert and Woodcock (2015) reported that only 132 pre-service teachers returned the survey during the first phase of the survey. Reupert and Woodcock re-administered the survey 10 months later, identified as the second phase, to the same participants, and usable responses were obtained from 124 pre-service teachers. Reported by the researchers were that of the final 124 pre and post participants in the study, approximately 17% were male and 83% were female.

The one-year PGCE prepared student teachers to teach primary and junior age students (aged 5-11). The program is 39 weeks long which includes 18 weeks of practical experience in schools, covering two age ranges from 5-7-year-olds and 7-11-year-olds. The researchers reported that student teachers were exposed to various classroom management theories in the Professional Studies subject, with a focus on practical behavior strategies on school placement. Student teachers have a six-week placement during the first semester in one school and a 12-week placement in the second semester in another school. According to the researchers, the first placement concentrated on student teachers' lesson organization and running single lessons, whereas the second placement focused on the planning and preparation of sequential lessons, nights of work and full days of teaching. Woodcock and Reupert (2015) reported that the first survey administration (phase 1) was carried out in a lecture held within the first week of the program. The authors reported that the second survey administration (phase 2) occurred

in the final lecture of the year. The researchers also reported that the surveys were matched using a coding system to maintain participants' anonymity.

Reupert and Woodcock (2015) provided the results of student teachers frequency level at the beginning of the program as follows: The most commonly reported classroom management strategy were prevention strategies and initial correction strategies. Preventative and initial correction strategies were reportedly used significantly more than later correction strategies ($t = 14.00$, $p < .005$; $t = 12.75$, $p = .005$). Participants also used verbally acknowledged positive behavior ($M = 4.40$), " saying the student's name as a warning" ($M = 4.33$), and "use of non-verbal body language" ($M = 4.23$), that were the most commonly reported strategies by pre-service teachers in the study (p. 90). Rupert and Woodcock reported that in the area of confidence, student teachers were significantly more confident in using both preventative and initial correction strategies that they were using later correction strategies ($t = 10.27$, $p < .005$, $t = 10.71$, $p < .005$). Rupert and Woodcock also shared that it was the "verbally acknowledge positive behavior" ($M = 4.60$), "use of on-verbal body language" ($M = 4.40$) "provide rewards such as lollies" ($M = 4.20$), and, "establishing a regular routine" ($M = 4.170$, that student teachers were most confident using (p. 91). Also as reported by Rupert and Woodcock was that in the area of success, student teachers reported that preventative and initial corrections strategies were the most successful of all strategies when managing student behavior ($t = 9.96$, $p < .005$; $t = 9.86$, $p < .005$) and that it was the 'verbally acknowledge positive behavior' ($M = 4.37$), 'said the student's name as a warning' ($M = 4.27$), 'used non-verbal body language' ($M =$

4.23), and, established a regular routine' (M = 4.0), that were considered by participants to be the most successful strategies (p. 92).

Reupert and Woodcock (2015) indicated at the end of the program analyses for the post-test revealed significant differences between the frequency, confidence, and success of preventive and corrective strategies used by the teachers. The researchers reported that the most commonly reported classroom management strategies were prevention strategies and initial correction strategies. Preventative and initial correction strategies were reportedly used significantly more than later correction strategies ($t = 12.41$, $p < .005$; $t = 12.38$, $p < .005$). Reupert and Woodcock classified that it was 'verbally acknowledge positive behavior' (M = 4.51), 'use of non-verbal body language' (M = 4.51), and, 'saying the student's name as a warning' (M = 4.43), that were most commonly reported strategies by student teachers in this study. The researchers added that the least frequently reported strategies overall were those grouped in the later correction subscale, with the least commonly reported strategies including "contacted the student's parents" (M = 1.84), "referral of student to other professionals" (M = 2.35), and, "referred student to principal or assistant principal" (M = 2.37).

The researchers indicated that through factor analysis, the items were categorized into three subscale variables that consisted of preventive strategies that were defined as strategies that consisted of strategies to prevent behavior issues from arising (i.e., establishing routines, seating arrangements and class rules). The initial corrective subscale included items that involved more intrusive corrective strategies such as proximity control and signalling and later corrective strategies included relatively more

intrusive strategies, such as timeout and behavioral contracts. The researchers reported that internal reliability analysis resulted in acceptable ($p > .7$) alpha coefficient scores of reliability for frequency, confidence, and success. The results reported by the researchers were that the means for the frequency, confidence, and success, of using preventative and corrective strategies measured during phase 1 and phase 2 of the study were that paired t-tests were applied to the means using a Bonferroni adjustment ($p < .05$).

This study elucidated on my variables because in Reupert and Woodcock (2015) study, the researchers used the variables 'confidence, success and frequency," the same variables used in the current research study, to examine student teachers use in classroom management strategies (p. 93). The Reupert and Woodcock research study is important to my research because their study lends support that teaching programs impact teachers' management skills in the class setting and the importance of an increased level of the use of confidence, success, and frequency among teachers.

Reupert and Woodcock (2015) indicated there were a number of limitations in their study. The researchers pointed out that this study was carried out at a single teacher training institution with student teachers working in similar cultural contexts and that this report relied on self-report data. To overcome the limitation of my study being carried out as a single teacher training, the current study was proposed to teachers teaching grades Kindergarten through 12th grade in the State of Louisiana . Reupert and Woodcock pointed out areas that future research might address to include a representation of the behavior strategies that student teachers are exposed to during their teaching program and

alluded that the behavior strategies would be useful, which are either embedded in the program, provided as stand-alone topics or subjects, or as observed during placements.

Similarly, Page and Jones (2018) conducted a quantitative study to investigate whether an alternative model using an online professional experience could improve perceptions of teacher educations students' beliefs, knowledge, perceived skills, and confidence in classroom management. Page and Jones used the following exploratory research questions: "In what ways did the teacher education students' perceptions (beliefs, knowledge, skills and confidence) of classroom management change upon completion of the course?" " What classroom behavior management techniques do teacher education students use confidently and successfully in the classroom, after completion of the Masters of Teaching (MTch) course?" (p. 92).

Page and Jones (2018) reported that there were seventy-five participants that completed the first survey that was presented at the end of the teaching unit. Also, thirty-two participants responded to the second survey after a four- week practicum. Participant numbers were from a convenience sample of 199 enrolled in the course. The researchers reported that the demographic questions of participants' name, gender or age were not sought, but rather trends across all respondents in relation to the research questions were. Page and Jones reported that the teacher education students were enrolled in the Master of Teaching degree at the School of Education and that details were removed or peer review. The researchers also reported that the students lived in a variety of locations around Australia as well as overseas. The authors did not provide any other demographic information.

Participants were asked, by the researchers, to complete the Classroom Management Questionnaire (CMQ) at the beginning and end of the unit. The researchers analyzed the transcriptions of the questionnaires following the Constructivist Grounded Theory and the researchers examined the transcripts in terms of the shifts in the respondents' beliefs, knowledge, perceived skills, and confidence of classroom management. The researchers reported that the transcripts were then coded to construct meaning from the context. The participants completed the SBMP created by Woodcock and Reupert (2013), which was presented by the researchers, using the Qualtrics Survey Software platform at the end of participants' first face-to face in school practicum. Page and Jones reported that the means and standard deviations were calculated by themselves and analyzed by themselves using IBM SPSS Statistics V22.0 (IBM Corp., 2013) for the responses to each item of the SBMP. Page and Jones reported that they determined the subscale scores in terms of the frequency of the classroom management strategies most often used, confidence in using the various strategies, and success in terms of managing classrooms. The content of the CMQ ascertained participants' philosophy, understanding, efficacy, and the implications for their practice.

The researchers used the CMQ to examine the first research question concerning teachers' beliefs, knowledge, perceived skills, and confidence of classroom management at the beginning and at the completion of the course. All students enrolled in the unit completed the pre-CMQ assessment and seventy-five participants responded to the post-assessment. The researchers indicated that they administered the SBMP in order to address the second research question after the teacher education students had completed

their second professional experience. The researchers reported that the second professional experience was undertaken in a school in contrast to the initial online professional experience. The survey also sought to establish if there was a difference between the teacher education students' teaching intentions regarding classroom management and the implementation of these in real-life classroom contexts.

The SBMP includes 31 five-point Likert-scale items on management strategies. Participants were asked to rate each item on a range of 1 "Not at all", to 3 "Somewhat", and then to 5 "Extremely". The items were categorized into four subscale variables that consisted of prevention (e.g., establishing routines), reward (e.g., rewards given such as stickers and privileges), initial correction (low level of intrusive correction such as teacher proximity), and later correction (higher level of intrusion such as timeout) strategies.

Page and Jones (2018) reported that the internal reliability Cronbach's alpha resulted in an acceptable (r = >.70) score, Cronbach's alpha for all of the subscales. The statistical symbol did not accompany the alpha result (P.96).The results for Confidence using SBMP subgroup revealed comparable findings to that of the frequency subgroups. There was a similar result in the means of confidence for initial and prevention strategies. The outcomes also indicated that initial correction strategies (M = 3.37, SD = .48) and prevention strategies (M = 3.45, SD = .42) were more confidently used than reward strategies and later correction strategies. The SBMP results for the Success subgroup were comparable to the frequency and the confidence subgroup findings. There were similarities found between the level of success for initial and prevention strategies. Initial

correction strategies (M = 3.24, SD = .49) and prevention strategies (M = 3.33, SD = .65) were used more than reward strategies and later correction strategies. A Spearman correlation showed a strong positive relationship between the ordinal variables of frequency and confidence ($r = .69$, $p < .001$), frequency and success ($r = .87$, $p < .001$), and confidence and success ($r = .68$, $p < .001$).

The SBMP results for Beliefs reported by the researchers indicated that 76% of respondents reported positive changes in their beliefs regarding classroom management. Forty-six percent of participants reported that their shift in belief was around the notion that classroom management was "much more than just managing naughty kids" (p. 95). Page and Jones (2018) reported that the CMQ on Knowledge reports revealed that 92% of participants related specific changes in their classroom management knowledge, simple and straightforward classroom management techniques "that reflect good systems because you can't assume things will fall into place automatically" were also reported as important by 61% of respondents (p .96). Observation skills and observation scaffolds were reported as important by 59% of respondents for the purposes of the development of skills in the area of observational techniques, tools, and data collection methods" (p. 96). The authors reported that CMQ concerning confidence showed that 92% of respondents reported that they felt more confident in classroom management.

Page and Jones (2018) reported that the SBMP they administered after the teacher education students had completed their second professional experience undertaken in a school, was used to answer the remaining research question. It investigated the classroom behavior management techniques that participants implemented in the classroom. The

authors reported that they categorized the strategies into four subscale variables in accordance with Reupert and Woodcock (2010) analysis of strategy associations. The subscale results for frequency of use, confidence, and success of each of the 31 strategies with each respective mean for the four categories of behaviors. Internal reliability all resulted in acceptable (r = >.70) scores of reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for all of the subscales. Page and Jones reported that while there was a similar result found between the use of initial and prevention strategies, their reported results indicated that initial correction strategies (M = 3.18, SD = .47) and that prevention strategies (M = 3.12, SD = .74) were used more than rewards strategies and later correction strategies. Page and Jones shared that the results indicated that upon completion of the course, the participants reported improvements in their beliefs, knowledge, perceived skills, and confidence in classroom management.

The researchers reported that there were several limitations in the study. The first noted is that the response rate to the SBMP (16%) was low compared to participant responses to the CMQ (38%).The researchers reported that the low number could partly be explained by the fact that teacher education students were invited to complete the SBMP after they had concluded their face-to-face professional experience, whereas the post-evaluation CMQ immediately followed the EDUC540 course work. It was therefore likely that the time gap between the CMQ and the SBMP resulted in a high attrition rate. Additionally, the current research did not explore a comparison of the survey or questionnaire to other comparable classroom behavior management courses that are delivered in a more traditional format. The conclusions from the study can only be used

to reflect upon the content and context of a one-trimester course in an Australian teacher education unit and therefore reflects short-term growth.

My study overcame the limitation of the response rate being low compared to the response rate reported in Page and Jones (2018) study by data collection occurring at one point in time in my study. The same variables (frequency, confidence, and success) used in Page and Jones study were used in the current study to provide a prototype for teachers' future development in classroom management and provide opportunities to impact teachers' beliefs, knowledge, perceived skills and confidence concerning their ability to use their knowledge and skills regarding classroom management.

Similarly, Phillips (2017) conducted a quantitative study to investigate the development of educators' capacity to foster their own identity development and use culturally responsive classroom management practices that met the needs of diverse students through a series of professional learning experiences. Additionally, Phillips study examined the relationship between educator self-reported perceptions of their capacity to meet the needs of diverse students and the number of discipline referrals retrieved from School-Wide Information (SWIS).

The research questions proposed by Phillips were: "Do educators develop a change in self-reported capacity for cultural competencies after participating in a series of professional learning experiences?" " Do educators develop a change in self-reported capacity for culturally responsive classroom management practices after participating in a series of professional learning experiences?" " Is there a relationship between a change in educator self-reported capacity and the number of discipline referrals received by

students in the educator's classroom?" Phillips proposed research questions related to the current study's research questions because of the similarity of relying on self-report from teachers.

Phillips reported the study was conducted at a Pre-K through fifth grade elementary school in Oregon. There were 566 students enrolled in the school, and 100% of students received free breakfast and free lunch. Of the total student population, 264 students were identified as active English Language Learners, which equates to 47% of the school population. However, there were 40 students enrolled in the pre-school program, and those students were not yet evaluated for identification as English Language Learners. English Language Learners made up 50% of K-5 student population. There were 28 different home languages spoken by students. Of the total student population, 32% were White and 68% were students of color. The number of White students in the school had decreased from 54% to 32% since 2009.

The author reported that this study began in August of 2016 and concluded in December of 2016. Phillips (2017) revealed that the study included a total of seven one-hour professional learning experiences, a voluntary summer book study prior to the professional learning experiences, and the completion of a pre and post-survey. Before the beginning of the school year, 16 staff members volunteered to complete a summer book study and training using Circle Forward: Building a Restorative School Community. The pre-survey was completed by all participants, including those who participated in the summer book study, prior to the first professional learning experience in August. The post-survey was completed following the last professional learning

experience in December. According to Phillips, the school equity behavior team facilitated each professional learning experience.

In order to assess teacher capacity in cultural competencies and in the development of culturally responsive classroom management practices, two surveys were distributed, the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS) and the SBMP. Both surveys were completed at the beginning and end of the study in order to investigate whether there was a change in capacity related to cultural competencies and or the use of culturally responsive classroom management practices after participation in seven professional learning experiences. The researcher reported that in the area of Cultural Competence only 25 of the 35 participants had both pre and post -survey data. This was due to family leave, long-term substitutes, resignations, and snow days.

The researcher conducted a paired samples t-test at the $p < .05$ probability level to compare scores on the pre and post- test. The reported results from the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores between the pre-TMAS ($M = 61.89$, $SD = 3.26$) and the post TMAS ($M = 63.58$, $SD = 3.61$); ($t = -2.218$, $df = 24$, $p = .036$). Using Cohen's d, the effect size was found to be ($N = .49$), demonstrating a modest effect between the pre and post scores on the TMAS. These results suggest that the professional learning experiences showed a difference between the pre and post scores. Phillips (2017) conducted an independent samples t-test to determine if there was a difference in scores on the post TMAS based on participation in the book study.

There was not a statistically significant difference in the post SBMP scores for those who participated in the book study (M = 62.95, SD = 3.59) and those who did not participate in the book study (M = 63.34, SD = 5.90); (t = -2.17, df = 27, p = .83). Phillips reported that participants provided feedback on the professional 65 learning experiences that supported the finding that their capacity for cultural competencies grew after participating in the two professional learning trainings.

In the area of Culturally Responsive Classroom Management Practices, Phillips (2017) conducted the analysis using a paired samples t-test to compare the pre and post SBMP scores after a series of professional learning experiences focused on Circles and collaborative problem solving. There was not a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of the pre-SBMP (M = 119.14, SD = 12.44) and the post SBMP (M = 121.85, SD = 17.62); (t = -1.071, df = 24, p = .295). There was a statistically significant difference in the post SBMP mean scores for those who participated in the book study (M = 129.39, SD = 15.64) and those who did not participate in the book study (M = 116.14, SD = 16.90); (t = 2.193, df = 27, p = .037). Using Cohen's d, the effect size was found to be .81, demonstrating a large effect size between the post scores on the SBMP and participation in the Circle book study. These results suggest that participating in the voluntary book study did have an effect on increasing teachers' capacity for culturally responsive classroom management practices as measured by their scores on the SBMP.

Phillips (2017) reported that in the area for Disciplinary referrals, he calculated Pearson's correlation to examine if there was a relationship between the TMAS and SBMP results and the number of disciplinary referrals given by teachers. The author

reported that there was not a statistically significant relationship between the number of disciplinary referrals written on either the score on the TMAS ($r = .026$, $p = .892$) or the score on the SBMP ($r = .103$, $p = .597$).

This study is important to my study because it addressed gaps in current literature regarding culturally responsive classroom management practices. These gaps include a lack of research about changing teacher capacity or developing identity of in-service teachers, the generalizability of past studies due to low participant numbers, and a lack of studies on professional development for in-service teachers on how to work with a diverse student population.

Phillips (2017) identified several limitations that showed there were other school-wide programs that were beginning in conjunction with this study. The school was also participating in a trauma pilot program, which included professional development for working with students who have experienced trauma. Due to the concurrent implementation of these programs, it was difficult to determine if changes to teacher capacity or changes in discipline data were reflective of only the study variables in the current investigation.

The author identified the use of convenience sampling, leading to the participants at this site not being representative of the population of Pre-K through fifth grade teachers in this school's district or other schools in the county in which the 57 school is located, as a limitation to the study. Also, due to the small population size of only 34 participants, the results may not be generalizable. Another possible limitation is that behavior data between 2015 and 2016 were used in comparisons. In searching for an

instrument to measure multicultural attitudes, the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey emerged as a valid and reliable instrument with strong data to suggest it was worthy to be used in this investigation. However, it was developed in 1998.

A noteworthy limitation is that the researcher reported that she is a member of the site staff and was responsible for the professional development trainings, which may have created some bias. My study addressed the limitation of using a reliable survey instrument that was developed to support current behavior issues within the school setting and that has been used in current studies in support of the validity of my study. Limitation bias was addressed by me not being a member of a school staff, nor responsible for development trainings.

Phillips (2017) posited that there is a need to develop classroom management in preservice teacher education to include the development of the same practices with in-service teachers. Phillips study relates to the current study because the SBMP scale was used to help answer the proposed research questions. The researcher also shared the importance of teacher student relationship where teachers identify when students are struggling behaviorally and that the teachers support students in developing lacking skills. Phillips indicated an interesting fact; it is important for teachers to understand students challenging behaviors, to communicate with the students, and work with the student to solve problems.

Operationalization of Each Variable for Newly Proposed Study

Grace-Martin (2015) defined predictor variables as useful for predicting the value of the response variable. The SBMP was appropriate for the current study so that data

could be gathered on teacher's confidence level, success and how often they used strategies to decrease disruptions in the classroom. Parsonson (2012) indicated that performance feedback can be used to assert teachers to change how they relate with children and which behaviors to attend to. Permission was granted to use the SBMP as outlined by the permissions section on the test that indicated the test content may be reproduced and used for non-commercial research and educational purposes without seeking written permission. Page and Jones (2018) reported that their research did not explore a comparison of the survey questionnaire to other comparable classroom behavior management courses. Page and Jones population were Australian teacher education students that participated in an innovative Master of Teaching course. Phillips (2017) indicated published reliability and validity values relevant to her study were that the SBMP was created for the purpose of her study and Phillips shared that tests for validation was not conducted. Phillips population were 35 certified staff members from a Pre-K through fifth grade elementary school in Oregon. The dependent variables for the new study were participant scores on the SBMP for research question one and number of students' teachers referred to the school counselor for disruptive behaviors for research question number two. The current study's predictor variables were: age of the teacher, number of years the teacher has been an educator, number of grade levels the teacher has taught, the teacher's perception of support from parents of students, and the teacher's perception of how easy it is to contact parents. The new study's dependent variables were how confident are you in using this strategy?, How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior?, and How often have you used this strategy? The predictor

variables for the current research study were teacher perceived parental support, teacher perceived ability to contact parents as measured by the demographic questions: “How much support do parents with children at your school give to the teaching staff? and “How easy or difficult is it to get in contact with parents of disruptive students?” The variables were measured using an ordinal scale. Numbers were assigned to the questions proposed to reflect ordering in regard to a question. The new variables chosen for the second study proposal’s dependent variables was the participant scores on the SBMP for research question one “Does age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teachers’ perception of support from parents of students, and teachers’ perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student predict teachers’ scores on the three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?, and research question two “Age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teachers’ perception of support from parents of students, and teachers’ perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student is not related to the number of student’s teachers refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by demographic asking how many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues.

Research question number three reads: Are participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the SBMP questionnaire related to the number of students that teachers refer

to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by demographic asking how many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for student who exhibit behavioral issues.

The SBMP scale has three subscales: How confident the participant was in using the strategy? How successful the participant thought the strategy was in managing students' behavior? How often the participant had used the strategy?

The predictor variables for my research study were age of the teacher, the number of years the participant has been teaching as an educator, the number of grade levels the participant has taught, teacher perceived parental support, and teacher perceived ability to contact parents as measured by the demographic questions.

- What is your age?
- How long have you worked as a teacher in a K-12 classroom?
- What grade levels have you taught since becoming a teacher?
- How much support do parents with children at your school give to the teaching staff?
- How easy or difficult is it to get in contact with parents of disruptive students?

I used the Likert scale in my study that measured the following:

"How much support do parents with children at your school give to the teaching staff?"

5 = ___ Much too much

4 = ___ Too much

3 =___ Too little

2 =___ Much to little

1 =___ The right amount

"How easy or difficult is it to get in contact with parents of disruptive students?"

1 = ___ Very easy

2 = ___ Easy

3 = ___ Difficult

4 = ___ Very difficult

5 =___ N/A (I do not try to get in contact with parents)

Data Analysis Plan for Newly Proposed Study

Due to the change in procedures, survey data was collected through Survey Monkey. Once sample size was achieved, the data was downloaded into an Excel Spreadsheet. The instruments used to collect the data were SBMP and a demographic questionnaire. The three subscales of the SBMP were: How often have you used this strategy? How confident are you in using this strategy? How successful is this strategy in managing the behavior?

Data was uploaded into SPSS Statistics 25 for analysis. Multiple linear regression for the analysis. A multiple linear regression is defined as one of the most common and useful statistical tests to compare the means of groups among three or more measurement sets at regular intervals that tests how change in the combination of two or more predictor variables predict the level of change in the outcome variable (Field, 2017). My data analysis included the use of Excel's frequency count function. Basic descriptive statistics

were calculated (i.e. often, confident and success) to describe teachers' confidence in using the subscales.

Data Cleaning and Screening for Newly Proposed Study

In the current study, data cleansing and screening was used to assure that there were no partial responses. A review of the analysis results section was used to filter out incomplete and partial responses in an effort to identify and minimize their impact on my study results. To identify incomplete and or partial responses, I looked for individual responses and for the message "respondent skipped this question." Day, Cyrus, Hochheimer, Krist & Woolf (2016) indicated responses are considered complete enough to be useful when one or two questions on the survey are unanswered (p. 8).

A statement was added on the consent form asking participants if he or she understood the purpose of the survey well enough to take part, and to please show their consent by clicking the "I accept" icon. Participants were given the opportunity to exit the survey should he or she chose not to take part in the survey. Participants were asked to contact me (the researcher) if they mistakenly answered the screening question incorrectly and should not be included in the study. Linear regression is sensitive to outlier effects therefore, outliers were tested using scatter plots. Examination of the data for unusual observations, when found, were removed from the mass of data. After complete examination it was found that there were no extreme deviations from the data set and that there was no presence of unknown phenomenon (Taylor, 2019).

Threats to Validity for Newly Proposed Study

The National Business Research Institute research team (2019) indicated that validity is important because validity determines what survey questions to use and that validity is considered to be the degree to which it measures what it claims to measure. Creswell (2014) reported that threats to internal validity include history, maturation, regression, selection, diffusion of treatment, compensatory, and testing instrumentation. Therefore, the following threats did not pertain to the current study however, possible actions are provided to address threats:

History is an internal threat to validity and is described as time passes during an experiment and that events can occur that unduly influence the outcome beyond the experimental treatment. History did not pertain to the current study in that no experiment was conducted, therefore there were no groups to experience the same external events. However, in the event there was an experimental study, both groups would have experienced the same external events.

Maturation is defined as participants in an experiment may mature or change during the experiment, thus influencing the results. In the current study there was no experiment conducted, a survey method was used instead. In the event maturation had been an internal threat, a researcher could have selected participants who would change or mature at the same time during the experiment.

Regression identified as participants with extreme scores are selected for the experiment and their scores change during the experiment. Creswell shared that scores, over time, regress toward the mean. This internal threat did not pertain to the current

study due to the survey method being used to conduct the study. Therefore, threat to internal validity included statistical regression to the mean of the study. The action taken to avoid this threat resulted in recruiting a larger sample size.

Selection is where participants can be selected who have certain characteristics that predispose them to have certain outcomes. I did not have the choice of random selection because I used a survey method that included teachers teaching grades K-12 throughout the entire parish of Louisiana.

Mortality is described as participants dropping out during an experiment due to many possible reasons. The outcomes are unknown for these individuals. A survey research design was conducted, and respondents were invited to participate by responding yes to the survey question and if the respondent declined, they were not counted in the data but taken to an exit page to exit the survey. In the research study, mortality could have been a threat due to participants not completing the survey or not completing enough responses to make a difference in the study. To address the threat more participants were recruited to complete the survey.

Questions asked that causes concerns for participants could be considered as an internal threat where the participant is asked a question which is questionable for his performance on the job (using behavioral interventions in the classroom for disruptive student behavior) that could cause the participant to have concerns about the finding of the research, which the participant may feel, the responses may possibly put them in a disadvantaged position within their school.

Diffusion of treatment means that participants in the control and experimental groups communicate with each other and this communication can influence how both groups score on the outcomes. The survey was designed so that the responding participants completed the survey via Survey Monkey online at his or her discretion.

Compensatory resentful demoralization is when the benefits of an experiment may be unequal or resented when only the experimental group receives the treatment. In this instance, the experimenter can provide benefits to both groups. The current research used a survey method via Survey Monkey on- line and with the new study, there was no treatment provided.

Compensatory rivalry is when the participants in the control group feel that they are being devalued, as compared to the experimental group, because they do not experience the treatment. The researcher can take steps to create equality between the two groups, such as reducing the expectations of the control group. However, my research study entailed teachers completing a questionnaire on-line via Survey Monkey.

Testing is when participants become familiar with the outcome measure and remember responses for later testing. The researcher can have a longer time interval between administrations of the outcome or use different items on a later test than were used in an earlier test. Testing did not present an issue for my research study because the teachers were offered to complete the survey questionnaire on-line via Survey Monkey only one time.

Instrumentation is described as when the instrument changes between a pre-test and post-test, thus impacting the scores on the outcome. The researcher can use the same

instrument for the pre-test and post-test measures. The instrumentation was not used in my research study because there was no pre-test nor post-test, only a one-time completion of the survey using Survey Monkey.

Threats to external validity include interaction of selection and treatment, interaction of setting and treatment, interaction of history and treatment, sample size, participants not selected randomly, homogeneous population, statistical conclusion, and inadequate statistical power and construct validity. Therefore, Creswell (2014) provided types of threats to external validity that are described below along with an explanation as to why the current study was not affected by the threat as follows:

Interaction of selection and treatment threat is identified as because of the narrow characteristics of participants in the experiment, the researcher cannot generalize to individuals who do not have the characteristics of participants. The researcher can restrict claims about groups to which the results cannot be generalized. The researcher will conduct additional experiments with groups with different characteristics. The current research participants were teachers that taught K-12 grade in the parish of Louisiana with the option to participate.

Interaction of setting and treatment threat is described as because of the characteristics of the setting of participants in an experiment, a researcher cannot generalize to individuals in other settings. The researcher needs to conduct additional experiments in new settings to see if the same results occur as in the initial setting. The current research study was open to all parishes in the state of Louisiana with the opportunity to participate.

Interaction of history and treatment is when results of an experiment are time-bound, a researcher cannot generalize the results to past or future situations. The researcher needs to replicate the study at later times to determine if the same results occur as in the earlier time. The current research survey was available via the internet using Survey Monkey and was not time-bound.

Sample size includes the number of people in the sample. The current study did not identify sample size as a threat to external validity due to the sample participants were not selected randomly, to assure that the study was not open to selection bias.

Volunteers were used to complete the survey questions. Volunteer bias such as homogeneity reduced the external findings of the study and threatened the ability to generalize from the ample to the population of interest. To address this threat, it was not possible for to ask participants why they volunteered, due to not having any identifying information such as participants name, address, phone, etc. in the study.

Homogeneous population was used based on teachers' that taught grades K-12. Therefore, the results would not generalize to participants that were not teachers in the school setting. Moreover, the effect of inclusion and exclusion criteria could have impacted the outcomes of the study, however there was no random sampling.

Statistical conclusion validity arises when experimenters draws incorrect inferences from the data because of inadequate statistical power or the violation of statistical assumptions.

Construct validity according to Creswell, occurs when investigators use inadequate definitions and measures of variables. The current study did not engage in the use of inadequate definitions or measures of variables.

Ethical Procedures for Newly Proposed Study

Due to the change in procedures the IRB approved the request to recruit participants by allowing the school principals to post flyers in the teachers' lounge to advertise the study. Principals were not provided information concerning who did or did not participate in the current study so that individual anonymity was protected. Identifying information was not collected on any participants. Methodology developed from an initially proposed teacher training to a survey. Therefore, there was limited concern regarding attrition because data was collected all at one time. Also, with the survey there was less risk to participants. Data will be kept for no less than 5 years upon completion of the dissertation so that it does not fall into the hands of others who might misappropriate it (Dissertation Handbook, 2018, p.18). An accurate account of the data will be interpreted. Biased words or language against persons because of gender, sexual orientation, racial or ethnic group, disability or age were not used. The researcher did not suppress, falsify, or invent findings. Details of the research with the study design was released so that the intended audience can determine for themselves the credibility of the study.

Summary

In the original proposed study, a quantitative quasi-experimental research design would have been used to compare the treatment and control groups for differences in

average count of referrals for disruptive behaviors among children whose teachers receive training in the use of REBT ABC model from an LPC and would have compared the results as compared to those whose teachers did not. Participants would have included a minimum of 84 teachers who taught third and fourth grade classes in one identified parish in the State of Louisiana. All teachers who volunteer would have been eligible to participate if they met the inclusion criteria of the study. Half of those teacher volunteers (a minimum of 42) would have randomly been assigned to the treatment group and these teachers would have received the REBT ABC model training, while the other half of the teachers would have comprised the control group. The total sample would have included a minimum of 84 classrooms, with approximately 20 students per class, for a total of approximately 1,680 students. To compare the treatment and control groups for differences in average count of referrals ANCOVA would have been used, while controlling for the covariate of SES.

However, as noted the original approach was not achievable, and the alternative plan proposed involved survey research via Survey Monkey. Utilizing the Survey of Behavior Management Scale with a demographic questionnaire. Due to the change in procedures, the sample included teachers who taught K-12 grades in the state of Louisiana, however as evident of the responses from principals only one parish in the state participated. The researcher targeted populations were teachers who face the challenge of student behavioral disruptions to the learning process and who make referrals to the counselor's office for these students. For the final study G*Power was

used for a linear multiple regression analysis with five predictors with an alpha of .05 and a power of .80, for a total needed sample size of 84 participants (Faul et al., 2013).

This study may reach teachers of various ethnic backgrounds who represent Louisiana teachers. The study entailed exploring teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

Chapter 4 will detail the sequence and content for each procedural change approved by the IRB until sample size was reached. A summary of the results of the approved changes for the study to include data collection efforts, aspects of time frame, and how the final sample size yielded adequate representation a long with an overview of the results of the current study will be provided.

Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter, I present the time frame for data collection, recruitment procedures, and response rates. I present discrepancies in data collection, baseline descriptive and demographic characteristics of the sample, and a description of how representative the sample was of the population of interest. I also provide results of basic univariate analyses that justify inclusion of my predictor variables. I conclude the chapter with the results of multivariate analyses that test the hypotheses of this study.

This chapter refers to the current study only. After the change in procedure, the new purpose for this study was to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship of these variables to the number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions in the classroom. Teachers served as participants in this study. Bandura's theory helped formulate the methodology and interpret the findings, which are discussed in Chapter 5.

My independent variables were age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teacher perception of support from a student's parents, and teacher perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent. The first dependent variable for this newly proposed study was the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor as measured by the questions: How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues? An additional dependent variable was the participants' scores from the SBMP.

My research questions for this study were as follows:

RQ1: Do age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parents have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

$H_0$1: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do not have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

H_a1: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parent, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's do have a statistically significant relationship with teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices?

RQ2: Do the age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive

student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues?

$H_0$2: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do not have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

H_a2: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from a student's parents, and teachers' perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent do have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

RQ3: Do participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices questionnaire have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

$H_0$3: Participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices do not have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

H_a3: Participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the Survey of Behavior Management Practices questionnaire do have a statistically significant relationship with the number of students referred to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter a teacher has referred students to the school counselor for behavioral issues.

Data Collection

I attempted to collect data for the original study from March through October 2018 and received no volunteer participants; therefore, I made several requests for a change in procedure to gain my sample size. On October 24, 2018, I requested a change of procedures from my university's IRB for the following: I made a request to go to the schools in person to recruit participants by passing out flyers with my invitation email with the link to the survey. The IRB approved this change of procedure request on November 2, 2018. I requested permission to provide incentives to teacher participants such as a box of chocolates for the teachers' lounge, coffee for the teachers' lounge, or those teachers who participate would be entered into a raffle to receive a gift card. I

requested to advertise my study on social media sites, such as Facebook and Twitter, to groups that are teacher focused. I asked to be able to contact teachers directly via e-mail with a link to the survey or upon meeting teachers face-to-face in public settings to provide a copy of the flyer with the link to the survey. I submitted a last change of procedure request to add a third research question: Are participant scores on the SBMP questionnaire related to the number of students teachers refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by the question: How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues? I received IRB approval for all the requested changes on November 2, 2018.

After receiving confirmation of these approvals, I began collecting data in November, 2018. I received all my data between November 6 and November 29, 2018. Each participant teaching from Grades K-12 completed a demographic questionnaire that consisted of 10 questions. Teachers also completed the SBMP that included questions directed at specific behavior management techniques used by teachers with students in the classroom.

A total of 99 participants completed the survey; however, one participant indicated they were not a full-time teacher in the State of Louisiana and teaching public school in grades K-12. Therefore, this teacher was not eligible to participate in the study. Moreover, the final number of participants was 98. Seventy-one (73.20%) of teachers identified that they worked in urban school districts, 23 (23.71%) worked in rural areas and 4 -four (4 .09%) identified that they work in both urban and rural school districts.

Fifty-one participants identified as Black or African Americans (52.58%), five as Asian (5.15%), two as Alaska Native or American Indian (2.06%), 28 as White or Caucasian (28.87%), 10 as Spanish/Hispanic-Latino (10.31%) and one identified as Other (1.03%) (See Table 1).

Table 1

Racial Demographic Breakdown

Race	Parish (%)	State (%)
White	48.8	63.5
Black or African American	48.0	32.4
American Indian and Alaska Native	0.5	0.8
Asian	1.2	1.7
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	0.1	0.1
Two or more Races	1.4	1.5
Hispanic or Latino	2.7	4.7

Note. Percentages for race and ethnicity may add up to more than 100 percent because respondents may report more than one race and the Hispanic/Latino ethnicity may be selected in conjunction with any race.

Sixty (60.82%) identified as female; 36 (37.11%) as male; and 2 (2.06%) preferred not to answer. Participants ages ranged from 32 to 64 years (M = 42.9, SD = 8.91). Ninety-seven teachers responded to the age category and 2 did not answer. Teachers identified their number of years working as a teacher in K-12 classroom ranged from 2 years to 40 years (M = 13.2, SD = 8.7). Sixty-one of the participants (62.2%) indicated they served only one grade while the rest indicated they served two or more grades. Grade levels served covered all grade levels in K through 12 (See Table 2) as follows:

Table 2

Reliability of Subscale Variables

Grade Level	Percentages	Years Taught
Kindergarten	2.06	2
1st grade	3.09	3
2nd grade	2.06	2
3rd grade	6.19	6
4th grade	14.43	14
5th grade	12.37	12
6th grade	26.80	26
7th grade	36.08	35
8th grade	34.02	33
9th grade	20.62	20
10th grade	15.46	15
11th grade	6.19	6
12th grade	6.19	6

The survey contained an item measuring parent support via a question on the demographic questionnaire using choices labeled as “the right amount,” “much too little,” “much too much,” “and too much.” The reported results were that 59 (60.82%) of the teachers indicated the right amount of parental support and 38 (39.18%) of the teachers indicated there was much too little. The choices of “much too much” and “too much” did not receive any responses, which results in this being a dichotomous variable.

The demographic question of asking how easy it is to get in touch with parents included responses of “easy,” “difficult,” “very difficult,” and “I do not try to get in contact with parents.” The categories reported by teachers were: Easy 38 (39.18%), Difficult 29 (29.90%), Very difficult 28 (28.87%), and two (2.06%) of teachers chose the category of “I do not try to get in contact with parents.”

Results

Assumptions of Multiple Regression

I collected data using a survey that included items from the SBMP along with a demographic questionnaire. The data collected for the variables age, years of service, and grades are all ordinal variables, and each of the dependent variables represented normal curves as they each fell within tolerances for kurtosis and skewness (See Table 3).

Among the independent variables that are ordinal including age, years of service, and grade levels served, age and years of service are significantly correlated (p. < .000; See Table 4). Given this level of correlation, the variable age was not included in the analysis.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Ordinal Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Range	Min.	Max.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Age	43.04	9.175	38			.085	–.788
Years of experience	13.27	8.688	38			.778	–.070
Grades served	1.84	1.328	7			1.563	2.246
Confidence	121.46	27.561	91	64	155	–.645	–1.070
Successful	114.68	26.314	93	56	149	–.590	–.968
Frequency	113.01	25.930	93	55	148	–.512	–.958
Referrals	5.18	3.587	15	0	15	.789	.256

Note. Skewness *SE* = .246; Kurtosis *SE* = .488.

Table 4

Correlations of Independent Ordinal Variables

Variables	Age	Years
Years	.699***	
Grades	.192	.128

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

Multiple Regression Analysis to Test the Hypotheses

Results for Research Question One

The first research question asks if the variables age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, teacher perception of support from parents of students, and teacher perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student predict teachers' scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the SBMP." Multiple regression analysis including this model to predict each of the three subscales revealed that the model is statistically significant for all three variables ($p < .000$ in each case). In all three cases, number of grades served, and level of parent support were significant contributors to the model (See Table 5). Years of experience and difficulty with contacting parents were not significant. In each of these cases, the unstandardized coefficients provided some insight regarding how this model worked. In all three cases, the unstandardized coefficient for number of grades served was negative indicating that as the number of grades served increased, the dependent variables decreased. Teachers were less confident, saw less success, and used with less frequency the behavioral management practices when they served in greater numbers of grade levels. Also, for all three cases, the unstandardized

coefficient for level of support provided by parents was positive indicating that the teachers' perception of parental support coincided with their sense of confidence, success, and frequency of using behavioral interventions to manage students. The results of these multiple regression analyses give reason to reject the null hypothesis for the first research question.

Table 5

Regression Analyses for Confidence, Success, and Frequency

	Model Adj. R^2	Unstandardized Beta of Independent Variable			
		Years	Grades	Support	Contact
Confidence	.514*	.171	–11.151**	12.068**	–1.409
Success	.470*	.134	–10.638**	13.134**	–.997
Frequency	.522*	.098	–11.768**	13.629**	–.682

Note. * Model is significant at the 0.01 level; * Variable is significant at the 0.01 level.

Results for Research Question Two

The second research question asks if age of the teacher, number of grades taught, teacher perception of support from parents of students, and teacher perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student predict teachers' number of referrals to the school counselor. Multiple regression analyses including this model to predict the dependent variable revealed that the model is statistically significant ($p < .000$). In this case, difficulty reaching parents was a statistically significant contributor to the model ($p < .000$). The unstandardized coefficient for this independent variable was positive meaning that as teachers had more difficulty contacting the parents, they had higher frequencies of submitting referrals to the school counselor. The remaining variables were

not significant contributors. The results of multiple regression analysis gives reason to reject the null hypothesis for the second research question.

Results for Research Question Three

The third research question asks if participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the SBMP questionnaire related to the number of students that teachers refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors. Using a correlation analysis, the three SBMP variables demonstrated statistically significant correlations with the variable measuring the number of referrals a teacher made to the school counselor. Correlations to the number of referrals were negative for confidence (-.394, $p < .000$), success (-.388, $p < .000$), and frequency (-.404, $p < .000$), meaning that as all three variables decreased, the number of referrals to the school counselor increased. The results of the correlation analysis gives reason to reject the null hypothesis for the third research question.

Summary

My results to research question one indicated that: Response to research question one: " Age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of support from parents of students, and teachers' perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student predict teachers' scores on the three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the SBMP does predict teachers' scores on the SBMP. I found that the response to research question two: Age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teachers' perception of

support from parents of students, and teachers' perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student related to the number of students teachers' refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by how many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues is related to the number of students teachers refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors. I reported that in response to research question three: Participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the SBMP questionnaire related to the number of students that teachers refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors as measured by demographic asking how many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for student who exhibit behavioral issues are related to the number of students who are referred to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues. I will provide a discussion of the study, conclusion of the study, and future recommendations in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The nature of the current study was for teachers teaching Grades K–12 in Louisiana to take part in completing a brief survey to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship of teachers' confidence to the number of referrals teachers made to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process.

I conducted the current quantitative survey study to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. My independent variables were age of the teacher, number of years teaching, number of grade levels taught, teacher perception of support from a student's parents, and teacher perception of ease in contacting a disruptive student's parent. The first dependent variable for this study was the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor as measured by the question: How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for students who exhibit behavioral issues? An additional dependent variable was the participants' scores from the SBMP.

This method offered teachers an opportunity to identify their ability to control behaviors exhibited by students in their classrooms to include a measure of teachers' confidence, success, and frequency in using classroom management strategies. My study was conducted to support the need for teachers' management skills in the classroom setting and the importance of an increased level of the use of confidence, success, and

frequency among teachers. In this chapter, I discuss the findings of teachers' confidence, success, and frequency of using behavioral interventions in the classroom.

Interpretations of Findings

The results of the multiple linear regression analysis revealed that the model including age of the teacher, grades the teacher serves, teacher perception of support from a student's parents, and teacher perception of ease of contacting a disruptive students' parent is statistically significant for all three variables. In all three cases, the number of grades served, and level of parent support were significant contributors to the model. Teachers' age and difficulty with contacting parents were not significant. In each of these cases, the unstandardized coefficients provided some insight regarding how this model worked. In all three cases, the unstandardized coefficient for number of grades served was negative indicating that as the number of grades served increased, the dependent variables decreased. Teachers were less confident, saw less success, and used with less frequency the behavioral management practices when they served in greater numbers of grade levels. Also, for all three cases, the unstandardized coefficient for level of support provided by parents was positive, indicating that teachers' perceptions of parental support coincided with their sense of confidence, success, and frequency of using behavioral interventions to manage students. The results of these multiple regression analyses give reason to reject the null hypothesis for the first research question.

Multiple regression analyses including this same model to predict the dependent variable of number of referrals made to the school counseling and revealed that the model is statistically significant ($p < .000$). In this case, difficulty reaching parents was a

statistically significant contributor to the model ($p < .000$). The unstandardized coefficient for this independent variable was positive, meaning that as teachers had more difficulty contacting the parents, they had higher frequencies of submitting referrals to the school counselor. The remaining variables were not significant contributors. The results of multiple regression analysis give reason to reject the null hypothesis for the second research question. The third research question asks if participant scores on three subscales representing confidence, success, and frequency in using behavioral strategies as measured by the SBMP questionnaire related to the number of students that teachers refer to the school counselor for disruptive student behaviors. Using a correlation analysis, the three SBMP variables demonstrated statistically significant correlations with the variable measuring the number of referrals a teacher made to the school counselor. Correlations to the number of referrals were negative for confidence (-.394, $p < .000$), success (-.388, $p < .000$), and frequency (-.404, $p < .000$), meaning that as all three variables decreased, the number of referrals to the school counselor increased. The results of the correlation analysis give reason to reject the null hypothesis for the third research question.

Theoretical Framework and Study Results

As discussed in Chapter 2, I built this study on the theoretical framework of Bandura's self-efficacy theory with the design choice of SBMP and four model variables. According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy is defined as how a person believes their capability to produce a set level of performance that influences events that affect their life. Bandura (1997) went on to express that although a person may expect a certain

activity to lead to a certain outcome, they may lack the motivation to perform the action, doubting their ability to do so. The SBMP is used as a tool to answer questions to include items that reflect a wide variety of behavior management strategies, ranging from prevention to corrective strategies, as well as instructional practices based on an extensive review of behavior management textbooks and research articles (Reupert & Woodcock, 2010). The SBMP model provides a framework useful to demonstrating increased insight into teachers' confidence, success, and how often they use behavior interventions in the classroom.

Researchers have posited that teacher training is a key factor for student success and achievement (Rand, 2012). De Vries Van de Grift and Jansen (2013) stated that it is imperative that teachers continue professional development and understand that their beliefs influence their instructional decisions. The original model of the SBMP was developed by Reupert and Woodcock (2010). Sequentially, from this theoretical framework, there are variables that influence teachers' use of behavior interventions in the classroom through the model variables of years of experience, teacher perception of parental support, teacher perception of contacting parents and teacher years of experience. Rawlings, Bolton, and Notar (2017) concluded in their study that classroom management addresses routines for the learning environment, time management, teaching, learning activities, content, student-teacher attitudes, and discipline. In the state of Louisiana, school suspensions and expulsions occur at a rate of 10% of all students for in-school suspension and 8% of all students for out-of-school suspensions (Talamo, 2017). Carr (2011) reported that with established methods, disruptive student behaviors

in Southern Louisiana school districts continue to be a significant problem. When a number of students in class demonstrate disruptive behaviors, it can create a chaotic environment that is an impediment to learning for all students and in these cases teachers use their classroom management strategies without successfully eliminating the obstacles to learning that these problem behaviors pose (Institute of Educational Sciences, 2008). Moreover, student referrals sometimes were placed in the hands of some school administrators as evident of suspensions, rather than a milder form of punishment for disruptive behaviors shown by student in the classroom (Bryan et al., 2012; Carr, 2010; Sentell, 2015).

In my study, I examined four main constructs and their relationship to teacher years of experience, teacher perception of parental support, teacher perception of contacting parents of disruptive students, and teacher years of experience. The results of this study align with the theoretical framework of the SBMP, providing evidence that there is a relationship between predictor variables and teachers' use of behavioral management skills in the classroom.

The SBMP model is significant for all three research questions in my study. The mode of combination of my four independent variables are years of experience, teacher perception of parent support, teacher perception of contacting parents, and teacher years of experience. All four combined together to predict my variables that are produced by the scale and have a high significant level of ($p < .000$) coefficient in all three cases. This is positive indicating that teacher support coincided. The model as a whole is predictable. Chen (2018) posited that parental involvement is key to student success. The most

important variable in my study is parent support as evident that teachers who felt supported by the parents tended to have higher scores on the survey that manage their confidence, success, and frequency of using the interventions. There is a relationship between parental support and teachers who use behavioral interventions frequently and feel confident in do so, therefore this is correlational. Hamlin and Flessa (2016) posited that educational policies have increasingly promoted parental involvement as a mechanism for improving student outcomes.

Goldberg and Smith (2014) explored parental engagement in schools in the context of adoptive parent families. The study results reported were that parents who reported more contact by teachers about positive or neutral topics reported more involvement and greater satisfaction with schools. In my study, teachers reported more difficulty contacting parents. Contacting parents was significant and positive for my study. The more difficulty teachers had contacting parents, they gave up on the strategy and made more referrals. Teachers in Louisiana can have children removed from the classroom due to behavioral or disciplinary issues (State of Louisiana, 2016). Using behavior interventions in the classroom for my study indicates the relationship across all three questions in a negative relationship because the more confident the teacher in using the intervention, the more successful the intervention meaning the frequency of making referrals to the office is less. The ASCA (2008) reported that school counselors are responsible for coordinating effective counseling programs through counseling, consulting, information, and referrals. The possibility of using the SBMP along with the model in my study may provide useful in expanding knowledge of how confidence in

using interventions in the classroom may decrease referrals to the counselors' office. The SBMP is a participant self-report survey, therefore, Creswell (2014) reported a threat to internal validity include questions asked that causes concern for participants concerns is questionable for his performance on the job (using behavioral interventions in the classroom for disruptive student behavior) that could cause the participant to have concerns about the finding of the research, which the participant may feel, the responses may possibly put them in a disadvantaged position within their school.

Limitations of the Study

Many studies that use participant self-report have limitations that could impact the reliability of data collection. Pedneault (2019), indicated people are often biased when they report on their own experiences. Pedneault reported many individuals are consciously or unconsciously influenced by social desirability. The researcher added that people are more likely to report experiences considered socially acceptable when completing self-reports. West (2014), pointed out that using questionnaires in surveys are subject to faking and therefore, to social desirability bias. Colombo, Morgan, and Drewry (2009), posited that because survey data is collected at a single point in time, measuring changes in populations is difficult, unless two or more surveys are done at different points in time. My primary limitation to the generalization of the results to this study was my having limited ability to gain access to the study participants and those who responded to the survey may not have been the representative sample. To overcome this limitation, I invited participants in all parishes throughout the state to participate in my research although only one parish participated. As I also indicated in my study, data

collection began when school was out and teachers were on summer break, therefore, there was limited participant availability. To overcome the time frame of collecting data, I will in the future attempt to collect my data during the time school is in session to avoid the breaks that teachers are afforded throughout the year. Another limitation of my study was that participants may not have truthfully and openly responded to the survey questions. To overcome this limitation, prior to the administration of the survey, I did ask participants to answer each question honestly.

Recommendations

Further research could be conducted to ascertain if the results of the study can be replicated within other parishes and other counties throughout the United States to begin to generalize the findings. I also recommend that my first proposed study be conducted. I recommend that all teachers, especially those who teach students who exhibit behavior disruptions in the classroom, are made aware of their confidence to provide behavioral interventions in the classroom. I strongly urge teachers to use the behavioral intervention in place in their classroom before the disruptive behavior escalate, so that discipline referrals decrease, and fewer students are sent to the school counselor. I encourage teachers to wait to send discipline referrals to the counselor's office when all the behavioral interventions allowed in the school system have been exhausted. I strongly encourage teachers to use classroom-based programs that enhance their awareness of students' social competencies. I recommend that in-service training should incorporate behavioral intervention training to enhance teachers use of behavior strategies that encourage teachers to use interventions often, help teachers to increase teachers'

confidence in using these strategies, and demonstrate teacher's success in using these strategies to aid in student success in decreasing disruptions in the classroom.

Future research on this topic may be beneficial for other researchers by them addressing the limitations of my study. I suggest that the survey is introduced at the end of the school year, followed-up a week prior to the school start and administered at the beginning of the school year, thus addressing the low response rate. I recommend that teachers use materials presented during in-service to help to decrease disruptions in their classroom that in turn reduce the number of referrals to the counselor's office. I recommend that teachers become advocates in helping to identify problem behaviors of students in the class setting that may possibly decrease behavioral disruptions in the classroom where students' needs are addressed and adhered to. I would advance my study by collecting data during the school year and I would maintain close contact with school personnel. I would also complete my first proposed study. I would disseminate my research via conferences, seminars, research journals, PowerPoint presentations, and via social networking, to create a wider awareness of my work. I would attempt to connect with the public and interact with readers via Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube accounts, to share advancement of my research.

Implications

Based on the results found in this study, there are several implications for a change in teachers' perception of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. For

teachers to use behavioral interventions effectively, teachers first need to acknowledge their own confidence in using behavioral interventions, note the success of using the behavioral interventions, and realize how often they must use behavior interventions to decrease disruptions in their classroom. Teachers should maintain an awareness of their beliefs in providing behavioral interventions, should handle behavior disruptions in their classroom, and decrease the number of discipline referrals to the school counselor. Results of my research study might impact social change within the educational system on a broader scope for teachers need to receive training to help to build their confidence in using behavioral interventions in the classroom setting

"Counselor educators who are responsible for developing, implementing, and supervising educational programs are skilled as teachers and practitioners. They are knowledgeable regarding the ethical, legal, and regulatory aspects of the profession; are skilled in applying that knowledge; and make students and supervisees aware of their responsibilities. Whether in traditional, hybrid, and/or online formats, counselor educators conduct counselor education and training programs in an ethical manner and serve as role models for professional behavior (ACA, 2014)."

As I continue to maintain an awareness of the number of suspensions, expulsions and student removal from the class setting, it is evident that training on the confidence levels of teachers using behavioral interventions in the class setting may be a viable option to decrease discipline referrals to the counselors' office. I feel that it imperative to gain insight into teachers' confidence in using behavioral intervention in the classroom setting and the factors that contributes to their lack of using behavioral interventions.

Gaining insight may be an influential factor that may be useful to present to the school counselor for additional training to better equip teachers to practice its use within the class setting.

The results of my study may impact social change within the educational system by alerting the public that there is a problem within the educational system in the State of Louisiana that needs to be addressed and that problem is identified as disruptions within the classroom and school setting. The pedagogy system at large should serve as an admonisher that education brings sociable modification to individuals and the community. Lee, Rodney, Rodney, and Rodney (2014) posited that teachers are the agents of change, education the stimulus, and the students are the recipients and preservers of change. I firmly believe that the results from my study enhances the need for teachers to maintain an awareness of their confidence level to use behavioral interventions, to use the interventions often, and to monitor their success in using interventions to decrease disruptions in the class setting. Agbor, Ololube, and Uriah (2013) expressed in their study that education whether formal or informal, traditional, or western is central to development.

Implications of findings from my study can improve the social issue of preventing and reducing suspensions and expulsion in the educational setting by teachers recognizing disruptions and adhering to the needs of student's before disruptions escalate. Teachers' confidence to use these skills and successfully handle student disruptions can lessen the referrals to the counselor's office. Therefore, decreasing the number of referrals to the counselor's office can reduce counselor's caseloads and decrease the

number of suspensions and expulsions in the state of Louisiana. The implications for positive social change for my new proposed study is that it will add to the literature on teacher self-efficacy regarding teachers using behavioral interventions with disruptive students and the results could help lead to training that would help enhance teacher self-efficacy.

Conclusion

I conducted the current quantitative survey study to explore teacher perceptions of their confidence to use behavioral interventions with students who are disruptive in the classroom and the relationship to the number of referrals teachers make to the school counselor for student behavioral disruptions to the learning process. The sample population used in this study were schoolteacher's in the state of Louisiana that taught kindergarten through twelfth grade. After I conducted a multiple regression analysis via SPSS, the results yielded that there was a significant relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variables. In this chapter, I provided recommendations for further research based on the findings and literature. I also shared ideas for further research on this topic.

My independent variables were age of the teacher, number of years teaching as an educator, number of grade levels taught, teacher perception of support from parents of students, and teacher perception of how easy it is to contact parents of a disruptive student. The first dependent variable for this newly proposed study was the number of teacher referrals to the school counselor as measured the demographic questions: "How many times in the past quarter have you referred students to the school counselor for

students who exhibit behavioral issues?" An additional dependent variable was the participants' scores from the SBMP. Once I conducted a multiple regression analysis via SPSS, results yielded that there was a significant relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variables. This method offered teachers an opportunity to identify their ability to control behaviors exhibited by students in their classrooms to include a measure of teachers' confidence, success, and frequency in using classroom management strategies.

During my research for this study, there was a gap in research related to teachers use of interventions in the classroom to decrease referrals to the counselor. Carr (2011) reported that Louisiana public school have the highest rate of expelled students, with the issuance of out-of-school suspensions due to disruptive behaviors shown by students in the classroom. With the increase of disruptions in the classroom, it has become apparent that behavioral interventions are useful to decrease disruption referrals to the counselors. Furthermore, the results of my study demonstrated that there was not an intercorrelation that can be correlated between variables of age, years and grades taught. However, years and age are highly correlated, meaning that older teachers have more years of experience and therefore age was no longer considered in the model, even though age is still in the research question. Moreover, the model is significant for all three with the most important variable being parent support.

In addition, Bryan et al., 2012, stated providing teachers with a tool they can use in the classroom to address student behaviors in a positive manner, may help both teachers and students create a positive learning environment that helps lead to student

success, while reducing the workload, stress, and feelings of burnout experienced by school counselors. Researchers have supported the notion that teachers who have been effectively trained to manage negative student behaviors in their classrooms are able to engage in more instructional time, and students have more positive educational outcomes, and less long-term negative social outcomes (Martens & Andreen, 2013; Reinke et al., 2013; Talamo, 2017) as compared to teachers who are not able to effetely manage their classrooms. This information may be useful in informing training programs to prepare teachers to utilize the interventions in their classrooms.

Even though teachers use some behavioral interventions in the classroom, there is a need to continue to examine teachers' confidence, success and how often the interventions are used to decrease the referrals to the counselors' office. In this study, I examined variables and factors that influenced teachers' use of interventions. Teachers confidence level, success and how often using the interventions may provide a framework for future trainings provided via the counselor in-service trainings or an outside source.

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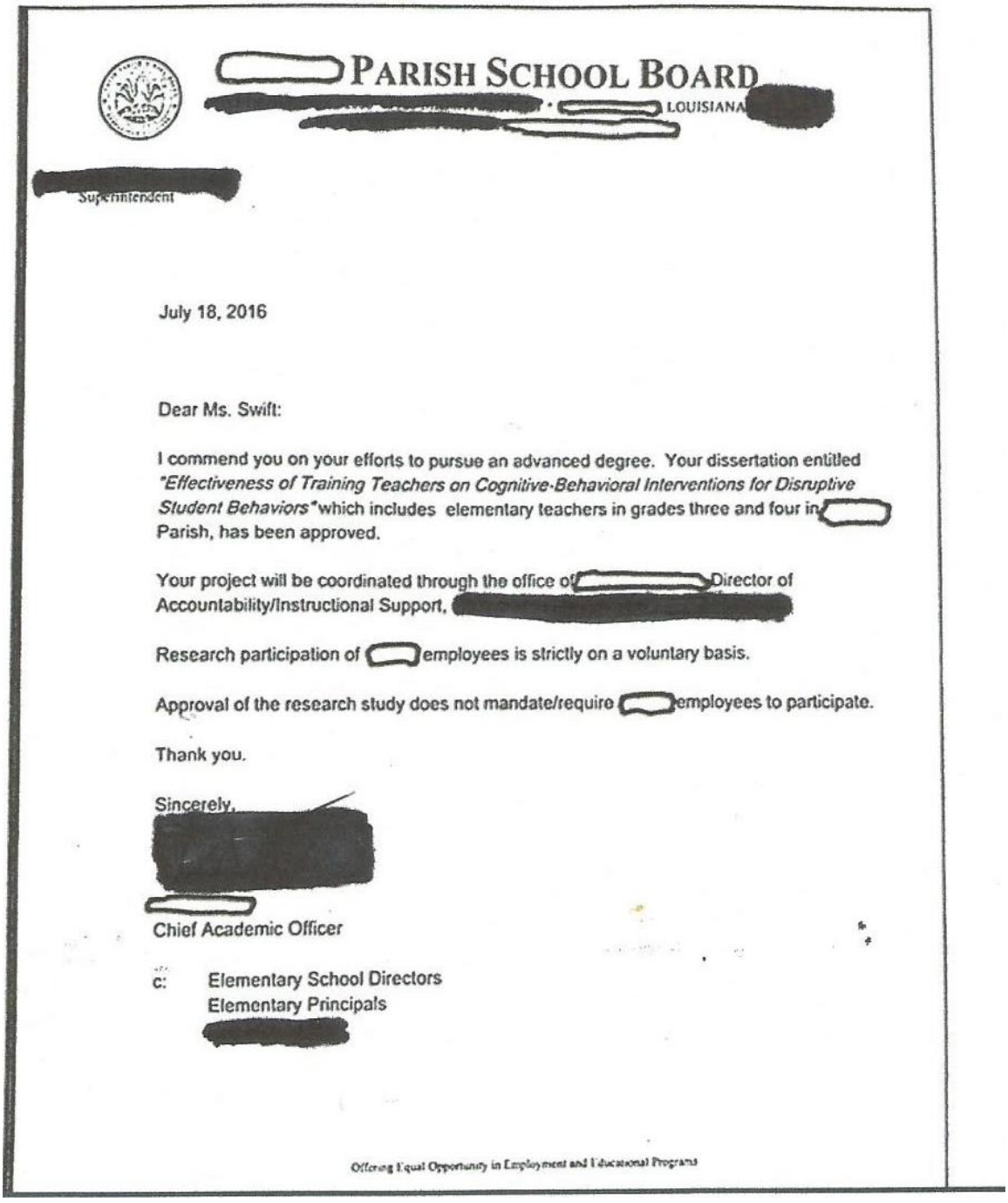
Appendix A: Permission from the Parish School Board



[redacted] PARISH SCHOOL BOARD

[redacted] LOUISIANA [redacted]

[redacted] Superintendent

July 18, 2016

Dear Ms. Swift:

I commend you on your efforts to pursue an advanced degree. Your dissertation entitled *"Effectiveness of Training Teachers on Cognitive-Behavioral Interventions for Disruptive Student Behaviors"* which includes elementary teachers in grades three and four in [redacted] Parish, has been approved.

Your project will be coordinated through the office of [redacted] Director of Accountability/Instructional Support, [redacted]

Research participation of [redacted] employees is strictly on a voluntary basis.

Approval of the research study does not mandate/require [redacted] employees to participate.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

[redacted]

[redacted]
Chief Academic Officer

c: Elementary School Directors
Elementary Principals
[redacted]

Offering Equal Opportunity in Employment and Educational Programs

Appendix B: Sampling Frame

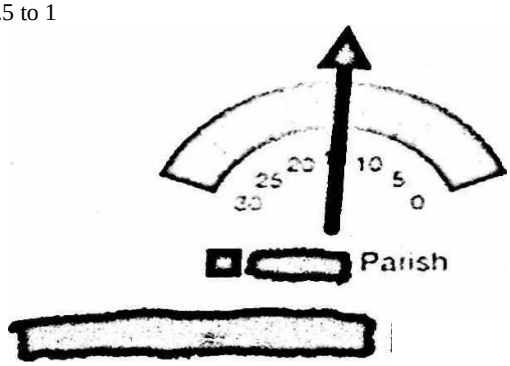
[redacted] Public Schools

- (View Louisiana Schools)

Public schools in. LA Find schools, get student / teacher ratios & counts, demographics and other facts.

Student Teacher Ratio

14.5 to 1



Public School Statistics / Demographics

Number of schools	76	Total Number of Students
• Elementary schools	44	American Indian/Alaska Native
• Middle schools	13	Asian
• High schools	14	Hispanic
• Other	5	Black
Number of school districts	5	White
Full-time teachers		Hawaiian Native/Pacific Islander
	2.950	
Average Student / Teacher ratio	14.47	2 or more races

Appendix C: Flyer and Invitation E-Mail for Final Study

Invitation Survey

Hello, my name is Etoile Swift, and I am a doctoral student in the college of Counselor Education and Supervision at Walden University.
I would like to extend an invitation to you to take part in completing a few survey questions which may take 20 minutes of your time. The dissertation research is on teachers' confidence to employ behavioral interventions in their classroom with students who are disruptive in the classroom.
If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact Etoile Swift, MS. IRB Approval Number: 03-05-18-0047454

Appendix D: Demographic Questionnaire

My work area identifies as:
___ Urban
___ Rural
___ Both

What is your ethnicity? (Select one or more):
___ Black or African American
___ Alaska Native or American Indian
___ Asian
___ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
___ White or Caucasian
___ Spanish/Hispanic/Latino
___ Other

What is your gender?
___ Female
___ Male
___ Transgender
___ Other
___ Prefer not to answer

What is your age?
___ 20-29
___ 30-39
___ 40-49
___ 50-59
___ 60 or over

How long have you worked the field of Education?
___ Less than 1 year
___ 1-3 years
___ 4-6 years
___ 7-10 years
___ More than 10 years

How many years have you been at your current position?
___ Less than 1 year
___ 1-3 years
___ 4-6 years
___ 7-10 years
___ More than 10 years

How many students in your class is on free lunch? ____

How many students in your class is on reduced priced lunch? ____

How many students in your class pay full price lunch? _____

Appendix E: Free Lunch Status

Free/Reduced Lunch in Louisiana Compared Nationally
Free and Reduced Lunch Percentage
Free and Reduced Lunch Percentage in Neighboring States
60%,64%,68%,72% Texas, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi
Free and Reduced Lunch Percentage in Louisiana Compared Nationally
Louisiana is Ranked 49 out of 4 (Free and Reduced Lunch, 2012).

Appendix F: Training Tool Outline

Training Day	Description/Purpose	Steps
First Part of Session	Instruct teachers in the experimental group in the use of structure and bonding.	The trained external mental health counseling professional will: Identify, define, and demonstrate structure. Identify, define, and demonstrate bonding. Teach why structure and bonding are used collectively. Teach goal setting techniques. Teach "why" goal setting is an ongoing process. Role-play with teachers by demonstrating a structured case scenario. Role-play with teachers by demonstrating a bonding case scenario. Role-play with teachers by combining structure and bonding case scenario to demonstrate the importance of using the two together.
Second Portion of Session	Instruct teachers in the experimental group in the use of goal setting.	The trained external mental health counseling professional will review the first part of the morning session and get clarification from teachers regarding their understanding of combining structure and bonding. Then he/she will continue teacher instruction on goal setting. The trainer will: Instruct teachers on how to set clear goals (e.g., how to figure out goals and how to help students identify what to change). Engage teachers in a role play to identify dilemmas such as overwhelming problems and or long-standing recurrent problems. Instruct Teachers in goal setting through additional case scenarios/role-play: Instruct teachers what they are doing that is not helpful for students with behavioral issues. Instruct teachers what they are doing that is helpful for students with behavioral issues.

		Instruct teachers on how to reflect and clarify what is said. Instruct teachers in how to build a collaborative relationship with a student with behavioral issues. Instruct teachers regarding how to portray a non-judgmental demeanor. Instruct teachers how to give direct and clear information. Instruct teachers to problem solve any difficulties. Teach appropriate/proper body language: Lean toward student Relax Make good eye contact when culturally appropriate. Use an expressive face: show sympathy and empathy Listen – tilt head Use a soft vocal tone Take Notes – Give rationale/make all aware that you will be taking notes. Instruct teachers to set goals for themselves. Improve character Understand truthfulness Perseverance Respect Patience
Last Portion of Session	Review, Summarize, Open floor for questions and answers, and give clarifications.	The trained external mental health counseling professional will: Remind teachers about the importance of structure and bonding. Emphasize the importance of teachers' understanding that this workshop is not just about problem solving, but it is also a way to help students figure out what makes a difference in their lives. Demonstrate the importance of teacher and student agreement on goals and tasks accomplished.

	Empower teachers to provide frequent summaries, both verbal and written, when asking direct questions as well as provide responses to assure effective communication. Teachers are asked by the trainer to self-evaluate their progress and seek additional feedback if needed from the external mental health professional.

Appendix G: Positive Consequences

Free and Frequent

- Verbal praise
- Smiles
- Stickers
- Rubber stamps
- Thumbs up

Intermittent

- Notes home
- Phone calls
- Special privileges (e.g. teacher's helper for the day)
- Extra computer time
- Special seat

Strong and Long Term

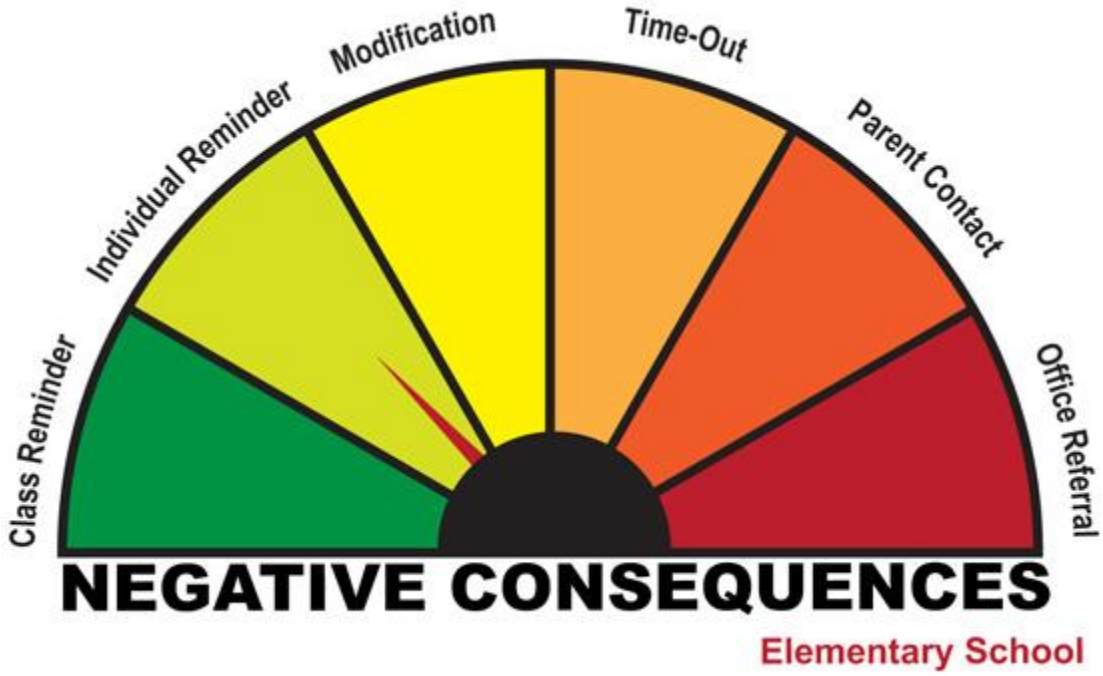
- Field trips
- Special projects
- Recognition to the principal
- Student of the week
- Honor roll

Classroom Management (Part 2): Developing your own comprehensive behavior management plan.

Appendix H: Negative Consequences

- Least-intrusive (rule reminder)
- Most-intrusive (parent-contact, office referral)
- Increasingly intrusive consequence until the behavior stops.

Sample Hierarchy: Elementary School



Classroom Management (Part 2): Developing your own comprehensive behavior management plan.

Appendix I: Positive Behavior List

- Raise hand to ask questions.
- Listen for directions.
- One person speaks at a time.
- Accept differences of opinion.
- Remain at your desk until permission is given by teacher to move.